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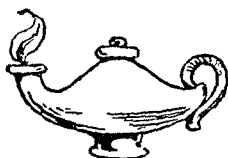
POETS' CORNER, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE

BY

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MIDDLE AGES' 'THE STORY OF THE GREEK PEOPLE'
'THE STORY OF THE ROMAN PEOPLE' ETC.



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PREFACE

THIS book is based upon the following convictions :

1. That the prime object of studying literature is to develop the ability to enjoy it.

2. That in every work of literary merit there is something to enjoy.

3. That it is less important to know the list of an author's works than to feel the impulse to read one of them.

4. That it is better to know a few authors well than to learn the names of many.

To select those few authors with due regard to what is good in itself and what is historically of value, to choose from the hundreds whose writings have made for literary excellence, is under no circumstances an easy task. It is especially difficult—and especially delightful—for one who can echo most honestly the words of the French critic, *En littérature j'aime tout*.

EVA MARCH TAPPAN

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

THE EARLY ENGLISH PERIOD

	PAGE
Our ancestors—The scop—Growth of the epic— <i>Beowulf</i> ; effect of Christianity on the poem—Form of Early English poetry— <i>Widsith</i> — <i>The Complaint of Deor</i> —Exeter Book—Vercelli Book—Cædmon—Effect of Christianity—Cædmon's Vision—Cynewulf; runes; <i>Dream of the Rood</i> —Early English poetry as a whole—Bede; <i>Ecclesiastical History</i> ; Bede's English writings—Alcuin—Danish invasions—Alfred the Great; his translations; his language; <i>Anglo-Saxon Chronicle</i> —The kingdom at Alfred's death—Literature during the tenth and eleventh centuries—Cause of degeneracy—Homilies of Ælfric—Rewriting of old poems—Other writings—Influence of the Celts—Difference between Celts and Teutons—Needs of English literature—William the Norman conquers England .	17

CHAPTER II

THE NORMAN-ENGLISH PERIOD

Advantages of the Conquest—The Normans—Struggle between the two languages—The new English—New influences; Norman intellectual tastes; opening of the universities; crusades—Chronicles— <i>Ormulum</i> — <i>Ancren Riwle</i> —Four cycles of romance—History of the Arthur cycle—The <i>Chronicle</i> ends—French romances; <i>King Horn</i> —Lyrics—Robin Hood ballads—Value of the Norman-English writings	41
--	----

CHAPTER III

CHAUCER'S CENTURY

Beginning of English thought—Feudal system—Changed condition of the peasants—Discontent with the Church—Peasants' Revolt—"Sir John Mandeville"—Langland; <i>Piers Plowman</i> —Wyclif; his translation of the Bible; persecution—Chaucer; plan of Boccaccio and of Chaucer; pilgrimages; <i>Canterbury Tales</i> ; Chaucer's style; his characters; his love of nature; his death; his influence on the language . . .	51
--	----

CHAPTER VII

PURITANS AND CAVALIERS—I

	PAGE
Shakespeare's later plays ; sonnets ; his genius ; Shakespeare as a man—Sir Walter Raleigh ; his <i>History of the World</i> —Francis Bacon ; <i>Essays</i> ; public life ; philosophy—King James's version of the <i>Bible</i> —Ben Jonson ; <i>Every Man in His Humour</i> ; the unities ; Shakespeare and Ben Jonson ; Jonson's excellence ; his masques ; <i>Oberon</i> ; <i>The Sad Shepherd</i> ; the Tribe of Ben—Beaumont and Fletcher— <i>The First Folio</i> —Closing of the theatres—Decadence of the drama ; causes thereof—Literature of the conflict—John Donne ; conceits—John Milton ; shorter poems ; pamphlets ; marriage ; Milton as Latin secretary ; <i>Defence of the English People</i> ; his sonnets	11

CHAPTER VIII

PURITANS AND CAVALIERS—II

George Herbert ; <i>The Temple</i> —Richard Crashaw ; <i>Steps to the Temple</i> —Henry Vaughan ; <i>Silex Scintillans</i> ; love of nature—Thomas Fuller ; <i>Holy State and Profane State</i> ; <i>The Worthies of England</i> —Jeremy Taylor ; <i>Holy Living and Holy Dying</i> —Richard Baxter ; <i>The Saints' Everlasting Rest</i> —"Cavalier Poets"—Thomas Carew—Sir John Suckling—Richard Lovelace—Robert Herrick ; <i>Hesperides</i> ; <i>Noble Numbers</i> —Izaak Walton ; <i>The Compleat Angler</i> —The Restoration—Samuel Butler ; <i>Hudibras</i> —Milton's later years— <i>Paradise Lost</i> ; <i>Paradise Regained</i> ; <i>Samson Agonistes</i> —John Bunyan ; persecution ; <i>The Pilgrim's Progress</i> —John Dryden ; the drama of the Restoration ; Dryden's plays ; his satire ; theological writings ; translations ; odes—Prose literature of the seventeenth century ; John Evelyn—Samuel Pepys	141
---	-----

CHAPTER IX

THE AGE OF ANNE

Coffee-drinking—Alexander Pope ; <i>Essay on Criticism</i> ; <i>The Rape of the Lock</i> ; translations ; life ; <i>The Dunciad</i> ; <i>Essay on Man</i> —Joseph Addison and Richard Steele ; <i>The Tatler</i> ; <i>The Spectator</i> ; Sir Roger de Coverley ; <i>Cato</i> ; Addison's hymns—Jonathan Swift ; <i>The Tale of a Tub</i> ; <i>The Battle of the Books</i> ; <i>A Modest Proposal</i> ; <i>Gulliver's Travels</i> ; Swift's character—Daniel Defoe ; <i>The Shortest Way with the Dissenters</i> ; result ; <i>Essay on Projects</i> ; <i>Robinson Crusoe</i> ; <i>Journal of the Plague Year</i>	171
---	-----

CHAPTER X

LITERATURE UNDER THE GEORGES

	PAGE
The last years of Queen Anne—The novel—Samuel Richardson; <i>Pamela</i> —Henry Fielding; <i>Joseph Andrews</i> ; <i>Clarissa Harlowe</i> ; <i>Tom Jones</i> —Tobias Smollett; <i>Roderick Random</i> —Laurence Sterne; <i>Tristram Shandy</i> ; <i>The Sentimental Journey</i> —Samuel Johnson; the <i>Dictionary</i> ; patronage; <i>The Rambler</i> ; <i>Rasselas</i> , Johnson's pension; James Boswell; Johnson's conversation; his <i>Shakespeare</i> ; <i>Journey to the Western Isles of Scotland</i> , <i>Lives of the Poets</i> —Oliver Goldsmith; earlier works; <i>The Vicar of Wakefield</i> ; <i>The Traveller</i> , <i>The Good Natured Man</i> ; <i>The Deserted Village</i> ; <i>She Stoops to Conquer</i> —Edmund Burke: <i>On the Sublime and Beautiful</i> ; <i>On Conciliation with America</i> ; <i>On the French Revolution</i> —William Robertson; his work—David Hume; <i>History of England</i> —Edward Gibbon; <i>Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire</i> —New qualities in literature—Thomas Gray; <i>The Elegy</i> —Percy's <i>Reliques</i> —William Cowper; his hymns, <i>John Gilpin</i> ; <i>The Task</i> —Robert Burns; early work and models; first volume; visit to Edinburgh; disappointment; songs; <i>Tam O'Shanter</i> , <i>The Cotter's Saturday Night</i>	189

CHAPTER XI

THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY

The "Lake Poets"—William Wordsworth—S. T. Coleridge; <i>Lyrical Ballads</i> ; <i>Rime of the Ancient Mariner</i> —Robert Southey; his works—Coleridge's poetry; its incompleteness—Wordsworth's life; slow appreciation of his poems—Sir Walter Scott; boyhood; early literary work; <i>Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border</i> ; <i>Waverley</i> ; Abbotsford; failure of publishers; the historical novel—Lord Byron; <i>Hours of Idleness</i> ; <i>English Bards and Scotch Reviewers</i> ; <i>Childe Harold</i> ; Byron's later life and poems; two subjects that interested him; attempts to aid the Greeks—Percy Bysshe Shelley; best poems; poetic qualities; death—John Keats; <i>Endymion</i> and its reviews; later poems; <i>Ode to a Grecian Urn</i> —Charles Lamb; his friends; poems; play; <i>Tales from Shakespeare</i> ; <i>Specimens of Dramatic Prose</i> , etc.; <i>Essays of Elia</i> ; freedom—Thomas De Quincey; first literary work; <i>Confessions of an English Opium Eater</i> ; dependence; two of his best known essays; his style; <i>Edinburgh Review</i> — <i>Quarterly Review</i> — <i>Blackwood's Magazine</i> —Jane Austen; her novels; their excellence—1832 a natural boundary	214
---	-----

CHAPTER XII

THE VICTORIAN ERA

	PAGE
Charles Dickens; early struggles; <i>The Pickwick Papers</i> ; later work; qualities of his characters; method of caricature; hard work—W. M. Thackeray; slowness of general appreciation; <i>Vanity Fair</i> ; Thackeray and Fielding; lectures; burlesques; best novels—"George Eliot"; character of her first work; first fiction; <i>The Mill on the Floss</i> ; <i>Silas Marner</i> ; character of her later books; her work contrasted with Scott's; her seriousness of purpose—George Meredith; <i>The Ordeal of Richard Feverel</i> —T. B. Macaulay; precocity; memory; first great essay; in politics; <i>Lays of Ancient Rome</i> ; <i>History of England</i> —Thomas Carlyle; his indecision; failures; marriage; <i>Sartor Resartus</i> ; <i>History of the French Revolution</i> ; <i>Heroes and Hero-Worship</i> ; <i>Frederick the Great</i> ; final honours—John Ruskin; <i>Modern Painters</i> ; interest in working-men; industrial ideas; poetical titles; style—Matthew Arnold; Greek restraint; prose criticism—Robert Browning; Miss Barrett and her poems; Browning's marriage; his dramas; <i>Pippa Passes</i> ; Mrs Browning's <i>Aurora Leigh</i> and <i>Sonnets from the Portuguese</i> ; Browning's later volumes; growth of his fame; how to enjoy Browning—Alfred Tennyson: early poems and their reception; recognition of his genius; <i>The Princess</i> ; <i>In Memoriam</i> ; as Laureate; <i>The Idylls of the King</i> ; <i>Enoch Arden</i> ; dramas—The Age of the Pen—Progress of literature—The novel of to-day	241

CHAPTER XIII

THE POETRY OF AMERICA

Foreword—William Cullen Bryant— <i>Thanatopsis</i> ; <i>To a Water-fowl</i> —The Cambridge Poets—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow; <i>Hyperion</i> ; <i>Voices of the Night</i> ; <i>Evangeline</i> ; <i>Hiawatha</i> ; Longfellow's sympathy—James Russell Lowell; <i>The Vision of Sir Launfal</i> ; <i>A Fable for Critics</i> ; <i>The Biglow Papers</i> ; the scope of Lowell's work—Oliver Wendell Holmes; <i>Poems</i> ; first contributor to <i>The Atlantic</i> ; <i>The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table</i> ; his novels; Holmes's charm—John Greenleaf Whittier; editorial work; <i>Snow-Bound</i> ; his ballads; love of children—Literature in the South—Edgar Allan Poe; his critical powers; the <i>Tales</i> ; his poetry; <i>The Raven</i> ; <i>The Bells</i> —Walt Whitman; <i>Leaves of Grass</i> ; <i>O Captain! my Captain</i> ; Whitman's style	273
---	-----

CHAPTER XIV

AMERICAN PROSE

PAGE

The beginnings of prose in America—the Knickerbocker School—Washington Irving; <i>Salmagundi</i> ; <i>Knickerbocker's History of New York</i> ; <i>The Sketch Book</i> and <i>Rip Van Winkle</i> ; novels; <i>Life of Columbus</i> , and other biographies— <i>James Fenimore Cooper</i> ; early work; <i>The Spy</i> ; <i>The Pioneers</i> ; <i>History of the U.S. Navy</i> ; <i>Leatherstocking Tales</i> ; troubles with litigation; Cooper's style—Ralph Waldo Emerson—the Transcendentalists; Emerson as a minister; friendship with Carlyle; his lectures; his literary style; how to enjoy Emerson; his poems—Nathaniel Hawthorne; <i>Brook Farm</i> ; his early life; <i>Twice-Told Tales</i> ; <i>Mosses from an old Manse</i> ; <i>The Scarlet Letter</i> ; <i>The House of the Seven Gables</i> ; <i>Tanglewood Tales</i> ; Hawthorne compared with other writers; his power—Bret Harte; <i>The Luck of Roaring Camp</i> ; mining stories—Harriet Beecher Stowe; <i>Uncle Tom's Cabin</i> —Henry David Thoreau; his love of Nature; <i>Walden</i> —Historical writers; George Bancroft; John Lothrop Motley; William Hickling Prescott; Francis Parkman—Humorous writers; "Artemus Ward"; "Mark Twain"—Literary progress in America—Conclusion	292
INDEX	312

SIGNIFICANT DATES

- 680 (?). Death of Cædmon.
- 735. Death of Bede.
- 901. Death of Alfred.
- 1000. Ælfrie, Archbishop of York, turned into English most of the historical books of the Old Testament.
- 1066. Norman Conquest.
- 1154. *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* ends; death of Geoffrey of Monmouth.
- 1205-25. Layamon's *Brut*, the *Ormulum*, the *Ancren Rīcle*.
- 1346. Battle of Crécy.
- 1356. "Sir John Mandeville." First writer of the newer English prose in *The Voyage and Travail*.
- 1362. *Piers Plowman*. English becomes the official language of the courts.
- 1380. Wyclif's translation of the Bible.
- 1400. Death of Chaucer.
- 1453. Capture of Constantinople by the Turks.
- 1470. Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*.
- 1476. Printing introduced into England.
- 1525. Tyndale's translation of the New Testament.
- Before 1547. Blank verse introduced by Surrey, the Sonnet and Italian attention to form introduced by Surrey and Wyatt.
- 1552 or '53 (?). *Ralph Roister Doister*, the first English comedy.
- 1564. Birth of Shakespeare.
- 1579. *Euphues*; *The Shepherd's Calendar*.
- 1587-93. Marlowe shows the power of blank verse.
- 1590. *Arcadia*; Books I-III of the *Faerie Queene*.
- 1590-1600. Decade of the Sonnet.
- 1594. Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity*, Books I-IV.
- 1605. Francis Bacon's *Advancement of Learning*.
- 1611. "King James version" of the *Bible*.
- 1616. Death of Shakespeare.
- 1623. *First Folio*.
- 1632-38. Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Comus*, and *Lycidas*.
- 1642. Closing of the theatres.

1660. The Restoration.
 1663-78. *Hudibras*.
 1667. *Paradise Lost*.
 1678. *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
 1700. Death of Dryden.
 1709-11. *The Tatler*.
 Mar. 1711-Dec. 1712. *The Spectator*.
 1733. Pope's *Iliad* and *Essay on Man*.
 1740. *Pamela*, the first English novel.
 1751. Gray's *Elgy*.
 1755. Dr Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*.
 1765. Percy's *Reliques*.
 1786. Robert Burns' *Poems*.
 1798. *Lyrical Ballads*, by Wordsworth and Coleridge.
 1802-17. *Reviews* established.
 1811. Jane Austen's *Sense and Sensibility*.
 1812. First part of Byron's *Childe Harold*.
 1814. Scott's *Waverley*.
 1817. Bryant's *Thanatopsis*, the first great American poem.
 1819-21. Best works of Keats and Shelley.
 1819. Irving's *Sketch Book*, the first American book to win European recognition.
 1821. Cooper's *Spy*, the first important American novel.
 1830. Tennyson's *Poems, Chiefly Lyrical*.
 1836-37. Dickens's *Pickwick Papers*.
 1837. Emerson's *American Scholar*.
 1838. Carlyle's *Sartor Resartus*.
 1843. First volume of Ruskin's *Modern Painters*.
 1847. Dante Gabriel Rossetti's *The Blessed Damozel*.
 1848. Vols. I and II of Macaulay's *History of England*.
 1853. Matthew Arnold's *Sohrab and Rustum*, and special work of criticism.
 1855. Charles Kingsley's *Westward Ho!*
 1857. George Eliot's first fiction.
 1859. Charles Robert Darwin's *Origin of Species*.
 1859. Meredith's *Ordeal of Richard Feverel*.
 1868-69. Browning's *The Ring and the Book*.
 1868-70. William Morris' *The Earthly Paradise*.
 1874. John Richard Green's *Short History of the English People*.
 1882. Robert Louis Stevenson's *Treasure Island*.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE

CHAPTER I

FIFTH TO ELEVENTH CENTURIES

EARLY ENGLISH PERIOD

I. POETRY

Our Ancestors. About fifteen hundred years ago, our ancestors were living in Jutland and the northern part of what is now Germany. They were known as Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, all different tribes of Teutons. They were bold and daring, and delighted in dashing through the waves wherever the tempest might carry them, burning and plundering on whatever coast they landed. If a man died fighting bravely in battle, they believed that the Valkyries bore him to the Valhalla of Odin and Thor, where the joys of fighting and feasting would never end. Yet these savage warriors loved music; they were devoted to their homes and their families; and, independent as they were, they would yield to any one whom they believed to be their rightful ruler. They were honest in their religion, and they thought seriously about the puzzling questions of life and death. They were sturdy in body and mind, the best of material to found a nation. About the middle of the fifth century they began to come in large numbers to Britain, and here they remained, either slaying or driving to the west and north the Celts

who had previously occupied the country. The Angles were one of the strongest Teutonic tribes, and gradually the island became known as the Land of the Angles, then Angleland, then England.

However rough the Teutons might be, there was one person whom they never forgot to treat with special honour, and that was the "scop," the *The scop.* maker, or former. It was his noble office to chant the achievements of heroes at the feasts of which the Teutons were so fond. Imagine a rude hall with a raised platform at one end. A line of stone hearths with blazing fires runs down the room from door to door. Between the hearths and the side walls are places for the sleeping-benches of the warriors. In the fires great joints of meat are roasting, and on either side of the hearths are long, rude tables. On the walls are shields and breastplates and helmets, and coats of mail made of rings curiously fastened together. Here and there are clusters of spears standing against the wall. The burnished mail flashes back the blazing of the fires, and trembles with the heavy tread of the thegns, with their merriment and their laughter, for the battle or the voyage is over, and the time of feasting has come. On the platform is the table of the chief, and with him sit the women of his family, and any warriors to whom he wishes to show special honour. After the feasting and the drinking of mighty cups of "mead," gifts are presented to those who have been bravest, sometimes by the chief, and sometimes—an even greater honour—by the wife of the chief herself. These gifts are horses, jewelled chains for the neck or golden bracelets for the arms, brightly polished swords, and coats of mail and helmets. The scop sits on the platform by the side of the chief.

When the feasting is ended, he strikes a heavy chord on his harp and begins his song with "Hwæt!" that is, "Lo!" or "Listen!"

Growth of the Epic.—Beowulf. These songs chanted by the scop were composed many years before they were written, and probably no two singers ever sang them exactly alike. One scop would sing some exploit of a hero; another would sing it differently, and perhaps add a second exploit greater than the first. Little by little the poem grew longer. Little by little it became more united. The heroic deeds grew more and more marvellous, they became achievements that affected the welfare of a whole people; the poem had a hero, a beginning, and an end. The simple tale of a single adventure had become an epic. After a while it was written; and a manuscript of one of these old epics has come down to us, though after passing through the perils of fire, and is now in the British Museum. It is called *Beowulf* because

Beowulf.

it is the story of the exploits of a hero of that name. The scene is apparently laid in Denmark and southern Sweden in the early parts of the sixth century, and it is probable that bits of the poem were chanted at feasts long before the work as we now know it was brought to England. The story of the poem is as follows:

Hrothgar, king of the Danes, built a more beautiful hall than men had ever heard of before. There he and his thegns enjoyed music and feasting, and divided the treasures that they had won in many a hard-fought battle. They were very happy together; but down in the marshes by the ocean was a monster named Grendel, who envied them and hated them. One night, when the thegns were sleeping, he came up stealthily through the mists and the darkness and dragged away thirty of the men and devoured them.

Night after night the slaughter went on, for Hrothgar was feeble with age and none of his thegns was strong enough to take vengeance. No sword could harm Grendel. Whoever overcame him must win by the strength of his own right arm. At length the young hero, Beowulf, heard of the monster, and offered to attack it. When night came, Grendel stalked up through the darkness, seized a warrior, and devoured him. He grasped another, but that other was Beowulf; and then came a struggle, for the monster felt such a clutch as he had never known. Benches were torn from their places, and the very hall trembled with the contest. At last Grendel tore himself away and fled to the marshes, but he left his arm in the unyielding grasp of the hero.

Then was there great rejoicing with Hrothgar and his thegns. A lordly feast was given to the champion; horses and jewels and armour and weapons were presented to him, while scopas sang of his glory. The joy was soon turned into sorrow, however, for on the following night, another monster, as horrible as the first, came into the hall. It was the mother of Grendel come to avenge her son, and she carried away one of Hrothgar's favourite liegemen.

When Beowulf was told of this, he set out to punish the murderer. He followed the footprints of the fiend through the wood-paths, over the swamps, the cliffs, and the fens; and at last he came to a precipice overhanging water that was swarming with dragons and sea serpents. Deep down among them was the den of Grendel and his mother. Beowulf put on his strongest armour and dived down among the horrible creatures, while his men kept an almost hopeless watch on the cliff above him. All day long he sank, down, down, until he came to the bottom of the sea. There was Grendel's mother, and she dragged him into her den. Then there was another terrible struggle, and as the blood burst up through the water, the companions of Beowulf were sad indeed, for they felt sure that they should never again see the face of their beloved leader. While they were gazing sorrowfully at the water, the hero appeared, bearing through the waves the

head of Grendel. He had killed the mother and cut off the head from Grendel's body, which lay in the cavern.

Beowulf's third exploit took place many years later, after he had ruled his people for fifty years. Not far from his palace a fire-breathing dragon had a vast treasure of gold and jewels hidden away in the earth; this had been plundered, and the dragon, in revenge, set forth to ravage the land by fire. Beowulf, hearing of this, although he was by now an old man, armed himself against him. There was a fearful encounter, and his thegns, all save one, proved to be cowards and deserted him. He won the victory, but the dragon had wounded him, and the poison of the wound soon ended his life. Then the thegns built a pyre on the seashore, hung with helmets and coats of mail; and on it they burned the body of their dead leader. After this, they raised a mighty mound in his honour, and placed in it a store of rings and of jewels. Slowly the greatest among them rode around it, mourning for their leader and speaking words of love and praise:

Said he was mightiest of all the great world-kings,
Mildest of rulers, most gentle in manner,
Most kind to his liegemen, most eager for honour.

This is an outline of the story of Beowulf as it has come down to us in a single ragged and smoke-stained

HƿÆT ƿE LARDE
na in ġear dazum. þeod cyninġa
þrym 7e ffrunon huða æþelinas elles
fremedon. of 7e ſcylð ſceþinġ ſceapen

A PORTION OF THE FIRST PAGE OF THE "BEOWULF" MANUSCRIPT

manuscript. This manuscript was probably written in the eighth or ninth century, and the poem must

differ greatly from the original version, especially in its religious allusions. In earlier times, the Celts had learned the Christian faith from the Irish; but it was not preached to the Teutons in southern England until 597, when missionaries from Rome made their way to Kent. At first they were allowed to preach on the little island of Thanet only and in the open air; for the wary Teutons had no idea of hearing strange teachings under roofs where magic might easily overpower them. Soon, however, large numbers became earnest converts. Bits of the teachings of the missionaries were dropped into *Beowulf*. Instead of "Fate," the poets said "God;" Grendel is declared to be a descendant of Cain; and the scop interrupts his story of Grendel's envious hatred by singing of the days when God made the heavens and the earth; the ceremonies at the burning of Beowulf are heathen, but the poem says that it was God, the true King of Victory, who helped him in the slaying of the fire-dragon.

Form of Early English Poetry. Many words in Old English are like words in present use, but Old English poetry was different in several respects from the poetry of to-day. The following lines from *Beowulf* are a good illustration:

Tha com of more under mist-hleothum
Then came from the moor under the misty hillside

Grendel gongan, Godes yrre bæc;
Grendel going, God's ire he bore;

mynte se man-scatha manna cynnes
meant the deadly foe of men to the race

sumne besyrwan in sele than hean.
some one to ensnare in hall that lofty.

To-day we like to hear rhyme at the end of our

lines ; our ancestors enjoyed not rhyme, but alliteration. In every line there were four accented syllables. The third, the "rime-giver," gave the keynote, for with whatever letter that began, one of the preceding accented syllables must begin and both might begin. The fourth never alliterated with the other three. In the first line quoted, the accented syllables are *com*, *mor*, *mist*, and *hle*, *Mist* is the rime-giver. In the second line, *God* is the rime-giver, while *Gren*, *gon*, and *bær* are the other accented syllables. The Teutons were very fond of compound words. Some of these words are simple and childlike, such as *ban-hus* (bone-house), *body* ; *ban-loc*a (bone-locker), *flesh*. Some, especially those pertaining to the ocean, are poetical, such as *merc-stræt* (sea-street), *way over the sea* ; *yth-lida* (wave-sailer) and *famig-heals* (foamy-necked), *vessel*.

Other Old English Poems. A number of shorter poems have come down to us from the Old English. Among them are two that are of special interest. One of these is *Widsith* (the wide-, ^{Widsith.} or far-,wanderer), and this is probably our earliest English poem. It pictures the life of the scop, who roams about from one great chief to another, everywhere made welcome, everywhere rewarded for his song by kindness and presents. The poem ends :

Wandering thus, there roam over many a country
 The gleemen of heroes, mindful of songs for the chanting,
 Telling their needs, their heartfelt thankfulness speaking.
 Southward or northward, wherever they go, there is some one
 Who values their song and is liberal to them in his presents,
 One who before his retainers would gladly exalt
 His achievements, would show forth his honours. Till all this
 is vanished,
 Till life and light disappear, who of praise is deserving
 Has ever throughout the wide earth a glory unchanging.

The second of these songs is the *Complaint of Deor*. Deor is in sorrow, for another scop has become his lord's favourite. The neglected singer comforts himself by recalling the troubles that others have met. Each stanza ends with the refrain :

That he endured ; this, too, can I.

Widsith and the *Complaint of Deor* were found in a manuscript volume of poems collected and copied more than eight hundred years ago. It is known as the Exeter Book because it belongs to the cathedral at Exeter. Another volume, containing both poetry and prose, was discovered at the Monastery of Vercelli in Italy. These two volumes and the manuscript of *Beowulf* contain almost all that is left to us of Anglo-Saxon poetry.

Cædmon (d. 680). The happy scop and the unhappy scop are both forgotten. No one knows who wrote either the rejoicing or the lament. The first English poet that we know by name is the monk Cædmon, who died in 680. The introduction of Christianity made great changes in the country, for though the sturdy Englishmen could not lay aside in one century, or two, or three, all their confidence in charms and magic verses, and in runic letters cut into the posts of their doors and engraved on their swords and their battle-axes, yet they were honest believers in the God of whom they had learned. Churches and convents rose throughout the land, and one of these convents was the home of Cædmon. It was founded by St. Hilda, a member of the royal house of Northumbria, at what is now called Whitby, on a lofty cliff overlooking the German Ocean. There men and women prayed

and worked and sought to live lives of holiness. At their feasts the harp passed from one to another, that each might sing in turn. Cædmon had not been educated as a monk, and therefore he had never learned to make songs. As the harp came near him, he was glad to slip out of the room with the excuse that he must care for the cattle. In the Cædmon's stable he fell asleep; and as he slept a vision ^{vision.} appeared to him and said, "Cædmon, sing some song to me." "I cannot sing," he replied, "and that is

[illegible]

HYMN OF CEDMON

Written at the end of the Cambridge MS. of Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum*. By permission of the University Library.

why I left the feasting." "But you shall sing," declared the vision. "Sing the beginning of created things." Then Cædmon sang. He sang of the power of the Creator, of His glory, and of how He made the heavens and the earth. In the morning he told the steward of the mysterious gift that had come to him while he slept, and the steward led him joyfully to the abbess, Hilda. Many learned men came together, and Cædmon told them his dream and repeated his verses. Another subject was given him, and he made verses on that also. "It is the grace of God," said the council reverently. The habit of a monk was put upon him, he was carefully taught the word of God, and as he learned, he composed poem after

poem, following the Bible story from the creation to the coming of Christ, his resurrection and his ascension.

Cynewulf (lived probably about 750 to 800). Cynewulf is one of the greatest of the authors whose words have come down to us from the early days of England. He, too, was probably of Northumbria, and he must have written about a century after the time of Cædmon. Hardly anything is known of him except his name; but he interwove that in some of his poems in such a way that it could never be forgotten. For this purpose he made use of runes, the earliest of the northern alphabets. Each rune represented not only a letter, but also the word of which it was the initial; for instance:

C = Cene, the courageous warrior.

Y = Yfel, wretched.

N = Nyd, necessity.

W = Wyn, joy.

U = Ur, our.

L = Lagu, water.

F = Feoh, wealth.

With these runes Cynewulf spelled out his name:

Then the Courage-hearted cowers when the King he hears
 Speak the words of wrath—Him the wielder of the heavens
 Speak to those who once on earth but obeyed him weakly,
 While as yet their Earning pain, and their Need, most easily
 Comfort might discover.

.

Gone is then the H¹nsomeness
 Of the earth's adornments! What to U's as men belonged
 Of the joys of life was locked, long ago in Lake-floods,
 All the Fee on earth.¹

¹ Stopford Brooke's translation, in *English Literature from the Beginning to the Norman Conquest*.

Cynewulf has many beautiful descriptions of nature, sometimes of nature calm and quiet and peaceful ; for instance :

When the winds are lulled and the weather is fair,
 When the sun shines bright, holy jewel of heaven,
 When the clouds are scattered, the waters subdued,
 When no stormwind is heard, and the candle of nature
 Shines warm from the south, giving light to the many.

Cynewulf loved tranquil days and peaceful scenes ; but if he wrote the riddles which are often thought to

O fte mte fæte bilanc fædlicu mæpfe idð onfura
 hƿilum up ætfeh folmum ƿinum ƿƿutan fællor hel
 ƿum þæone ƿalno hæth ƿæs ƿiðþan me onhæpne
 hæpoo fteade moþanup ƿæpne onnæpne fæge
 gƿæt ond fægen ellan doltra þemte fæte fædne
 fællan fædne ƿupst nat hƿæt ƿæt hƿæt ic mæne :
I C ſom hæro ƿæstun ingongst fteong.
 fteond ƿiſst fteom ftean unƿon cud fæde unofte ƿon
 be ƿme fteð fæla ƿhte ne ge ƿme ƿincbidion

CYNEWULF'S RIDDLES

From the "Exeter Book," in the Exeter Cathedral Library By permission.

be his, he had not lost sympathy with the wild life of his ancestors on the stormy ocean. The English liked riddles, and this one must have been repeated over and over again at convent feasts and in halls at times of rejoicing :

Sometimes I come down from above and stir up the storm-
waves ;

The surges, gray as the flint-stone, I hurl on the sea-banks,
The foaming waters I dash on the rock-wall. Gloomily
Moves from the deep a mountain billow ; darkening,
Onward it sweeps o'er the turbulent wild of the ocean.
Another comes forth and, commingling, they meet at the
mainland

In high, towering ridges. Loud is the call from the vessel,
Loud is the sailors' appeal ; but the rock-masses lofty
Stand unmoved by the seafarers' cries or the waters.

The answer to this is " The hurricane."

An especially beautiful poem which, if not by Cynewulf is certainly by a follower of him, is called the *Dream of the Rood*. The cross appeared to the The Dream of the Rood. poet in a dream,—“ the choicest dream,” he calls it. It was “ circled with light,” it was glittering with gems and with gold, and around it stood the angels of God. From it there flowed forth a stream of blood ; and while the dreamer gazed in wonder, the cross spoke to him. It told him of the tree being cut from the edge of the forest and made into the cross. Then followed the story of the crucifixion, of the three crosses that stood long on Calvary sorrowing, of the burial of the cross of Christ deep down in the earth, of its being found by servants of God, who adorned it with silver and with gold that it might bring healing to all who should pay it their reverence.

Early English Poetry as a Whole. Such was the Early English poetry, beginning with wild exploits of half fabulous heroes and gradually changing under the touch of Christianity into paraphrases of the Bible story, into legends of saints, and accounts of heavenly visions. It contains bold descriptions of sea and tempest, intermingling, as the years passed, with pictures of more quiet and peaceful scenes. The

names of but two poets, Cædmon and Cynewulf, are known to us ; but throughout all these early poems there is an earnestness, an appealing sincerity, and an honest, childlike love of nature that bring the writers very near to us, and make them no unworthy predecessors of the poets that have followed them.

II. PROSE

Bede (673-735). About the time of the death of Cædmon, a boy was born in Northumbria who was to write one of the most famous pieces of Early English prose. His name was Bede, or Bæda, and he is often called the Venerable Bede, venerable being the title next below that of saint. When he was a little child, he was taken to the convent of Jarrow, and there he remained all his life. A busy life it was. The many hours of prayer must be observed ; the land ^{His educa-} must be cultivated ; guests must be entertained, no small interruption as the fame of the convent and of Bede himself increased. Moreover, this convent was a great school, to which some six hundred pupils, not only from England but from various parts of Europe, came for instruction.

Bede enjoyed it all. He was happy in his religious duties. He "always took delight," as he says, "in learning, teaching, and writing." He found real pleasure in the outdoor work ; and, little as he tells us of his own life, he does not forget to say that he especially liked winnowing and threshing the grain and giving milk to the young lambs and calves. He was keenly alive to the affairs of the world, and though libraries were his special delight, he was as ready to talk with his stranger guests of distant kingdoms as of books.

In the different monasteries of England there were collections of valuable manuscripts, and Jarrow had one of the most famous of these collections. The abbot loved books, and from each of his numerous journeys to Rome he returned with a rich store of volumes.

Much of Bede's time must have been given to teaching, and yet, in the midst of all his varied occupations, this first English scholar found leisure to write an enormous amount. Forty-five different works he produced, and they were really a



MONK AT WORK ON BOOK
OF KILDARE

summary of the knowledge of his day. He wrote of grammar, rhetoric, music, medicine; he wrote lives of saints and commentaries on the Bible—indeed, there is hardly a subject that he did not touch. He even wrote a volume of poems, including a dainty little pastoral, resembling the Latin pastorals, a contest of song between summer and winter, which closes with a pretty picture of the coming of springtime and the cuckoo. "When the cuckoo comes," he says, "the hills are covered with happy blossoms, the flocks find pasture, the meadows are full of repose, the spreading branches of the trees give shade to the weary, and the many-coloured birds sing their joyful greeting to the sunshine."

One day the King of Northumbria asked Bede to write a history of England, and the busy monk began the work as simply as if he were about to prepare a lesson for his pupils. He sent to Rome for copies of letters and reports written in the early days when the

Romans ruled the land; he borrowed from various convents their treasures of old manuscripts pertaining to the early times; and he talked with men who had preserved the ancient traditions and legends.

So it was that Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, the first history of England, was written.

Bede's
Ecclesiastical
History.

When it was done, he sent it to the King, together with a sincere and dignified little preface, in which he asked for the prayers of whoever should read the book—a much larger number than the quiet monk expected.

With the difficulty of collecting information, no one could expect Bede's work to be free from mistakes, although he was careful from whom his information came, and he often gives the name of his authority. Bede knew well how to tell a story, and the *Ecclesiastical History*, sober and grave as its title sounds, is full of tales of visions of angels, lights from heaven, mysterious voices, and tempests that were stilled and fires that were quenched at the prayers of holy men. Here is the legend of Cædmon and his gift of song. Here, too, is the famous statement that there are no snakes in Ireland. "Even if they are carried thither from Britain," says Bede, "as soon as the ship comes near the shore and the scent of the air reaches them, they die."

All these books were written in Latin. That was the tongue of the church and of all scholars of the day. It was a universal language, and an educated man might be set down in any monastery in England or on the Continent, and feel perfectly at home in its book-room or in conversation with the monks. Bede was so thoroughly English, however, in his love of nature, his frankness and earnestness, and his devotion

to the people of his own land that, although he wrote in Latin, most of his works have a purely English atmosphere. He did not scorn his native tongue, and even in his writing he may have used it more than once, though we know the name of one work only. This was a translation of the *Gospel of St John*, and it was his last work. He knew that his life was near its close, but he felt that he must

Bede's
English
writings.

complete this translation for his pupils. Some one of them was always with him to write as the teacher might feel able to dictate. The last day of his life came, and in the morning the pupil said, "Master, there is still one chapter wanting. Will it trouble you to be asked any more questions?" "It is no trouble," answered Bede.



A MEDIAEVAL AUTHOR AT WORK

"Take your pen and write quickly." When evening had come, the boy said gently, "Dear Master, there is yet one sentence not written." "Write quickly," said Bede again. "The sentence is written," said the boy a few minutes later. "It is well," murmured Bede, and with new strength he joyfully chanted the *Gloria*; and so, in 735, he passed away, the first English scholar, scientist, and historian.

Alcuin (735?-804). In the very year of Bede's death, if we may trust to tradition, Alcuin was born, the man who was to carry on English scholarship, though not on English soil. He was a monk of the convent of York, and was famous for his knowledge. Perhaps

some of the English churchmen thought that he was too famous, when they knew that King Charlemagne had heard of his learning, and had persuaded him to leave his own country and come to France to teach the royal children and take charge of education in the Frankish kingdom. For fourteen years, from 782 to 796, he spent nearly all his time at the court of Charlemagne. Moreover, he persuaded many other men who had been trained at York to leave England and assist him in teaching the Franks. He little knew how grateful the English would be in later years that this had been done.

Alfred the Great, 849-901. During those years of Alcuin's absence in France, there was dire trouble in Northumbria. King after king was slain by ^{Danish} rebels; and finally the Danes, coming from ^{invasions.} the shores of the Baltic, made their first attacks on the coasts of Northumbria. This was the beginning. Year after year the savage pirates fell upon the land. For more than three-quarters of a century the Northumbrians were either fighting or dreading the coming of their heathen foes. At the end of that time, when peace was made with the terrible invaders, Northumbria was a desert so far as literature was concerned. The Danes had struck specially at the religious houses because of the gold and silver vessels and ornaments that were collected in them; and not one monastery remained standing in all the land from the Tyne to the Humber. Libraries famous over Europe had been burned; smoked and bloodstained ruins were alone left to show where men had been taught who had become the teachers of Europe. South of the Humber matters were little better; for there, too, the heathen Danes had swept through and through the country.

Priests pronounced the words in their Latin mass books, but very few could understand the language and put a Latin letter into English. The only hope of England lay in her king. It was happy for her that her king was Alfred the Great, and that this sovereign who could fight battles of swords and spears Alfred's character. was of equal courage and wisdom in the warfare against ignorance. In his childhood he had visited Rome, perhaps spent several years in that city. He had paid a long visit to the Frankish court of Charlemagne's son. He had seen what knowledge could do, and he meant that his own people should have a chance to learn. Then it was that France repaid England for the loan of Alcuin, for priests who had been taught in the schools which he had founded were induced to cross the Channel and become the teachers of the English.

There were few English books, however, and there was no one to make them but this busy King; and Alfred's translations. just as simply as Bede had taken up his pen to write a history of the land, so Alfred set to work to translate books for his kingdom. Among the books that he translated were two that must have been of special interest to the English Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, and a combined history and geography of the world, written nearly five hundred years before Alfred's day by a Spanish monk called Orosius. The latter had long been a favourite school-book in the convents; but, naturally, a geography that was five hundred years old was in need of revision, and Alfred became not only a translator but a reviser. He never forgot that he was writing for his people, and whenever he came to an expression that would not be clear to them, he either explained

it, or omitted it altogether. Whenever he could correct a mistake of Orosius's, he did so.

The Language of Alfred's time. In one way Alfred had not only his translations to make, but his very language to invent. Latin is a finished, exact, accurate language; the English of the ninth century was rude, childish, and awkward, and it was no easy task to interpret the clean-cut wording of the Latin into the loose, clumsy English phrases. Nevertheless, Alfred had no thought of imitating the Latin construction. The following is a literal translation of part of the preface to one of his books that he sent to Wærferth, bishop of Worcester :

Alfred the King bids to greet Wærferth the bishop with loving words and in friendly wise ; and I bid this be known to thee that it very often comes into my mind what wise men there were formerly, both clergy and laymen ; and what blessed times there were then throughout England ; and how kings who had power over the nation in those days obeyed God and his ministers, and they both preserved peace, order, and authority at home and also increased their territory abroad ; and how they throve both in war and in wisdom ; and also the holy orders how zealous they were both in teaching and in learning, and in all the services that they ought to give to God ; and how people from abroad sought wisdom and teaching in this land ; and how we must now get them from without if we are to have them.

Confused as this is, the King's earnestness shows in every word. He knows just what he means to say, and, language or no language, he contrives to say it. Bede's translation of the *Gospel of Saint John* disappeared centuries ago, and this preface of King Alfred's is the first bit of English prose that we possess. Literature had vanished from the north and was making its home in the south.

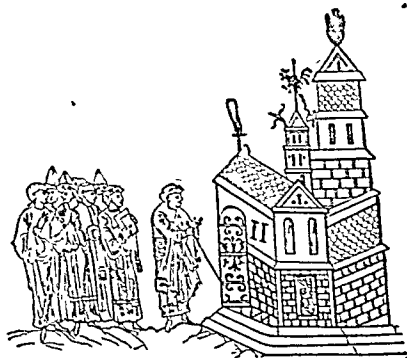
The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. Another piece of literary and historical work we owe to Alfred, and

that is the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. In almost every convent the monks were accustomed to set down what seemed to them the most important events, such as the death of a king, an attack by the Danes, an unusually high tide, or an eclipse of the sun. One of these lists of events was kept at Winchester, Alfred's capital city, and the idea occurred to him of revising this table, adding to it from Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* and other sources, and making it the beginning of a progressive history of his kingdom. It is possible that Alfred himself did this revising, and it can hardly be doubted that he wrote at least the accounts of some of his own battles with the Danes.

Death of Alfred. In 901 it was written in the *Chronicle*, "This year died Alfred, the son of Ethelwulf." King Alfred left England apparently on the way to literary progress, if not greatness. The kingdom was at peace; the Danes of the north and the English of the south were under one king, and were, nominally at least, ruled by the same laws; churches had arisen over the kingdom; monasteries had been built and endowed; schools were increasing in number and in excellence; books of practical worth had been translated, probably more than have come down to us; the people had been encouraged to learn the language of scholars, yet their own native tongue had not been scorned, but rather raised to the rank of a literary language. There seemed every reason to expect national progress in all directions, and especially in matters intellectual.

Literature during the Tenth and Eleventh Centuries. The contrary was the fact. For this there were two reasons: (1) Alfred's rule was that of one man. His subjects studied because the King

required students. Learned men came to England because the King invited them and rewarded them. At Alfred's death a natural reaction set in. The strong will and the generous hand were gone, the watchful eye of the King was closed. (2) The Danes renewed their attacks. It almost ceased to be a question of any moment whether England should advance; far more pressing was the question whether England



DEDICATION OF A SAXON CHURCH

From an old manuscript.

should exist. The church was in a low state. The monks did not obey the rules of their orders, and many of the secular clergy were not only ignorant but openly wicked. About the middle of the tenth century, the monk Dunstan became abbot of

Glastonbury, and he preached reforms so earnestly that both priests and people began to mend their ways. Moreover, the year 1000 was approaching, and there was a general feeling that in that year the world would come to an end. A natural result of this feeling was that the church became more active, and that great numbers of lives of saints appeared, and sermons, or homilies, as they were called.

These homilies were not so uninteresting as one might think. To hold the attention of the people, the preachers were forced to be pictur-

esque, and they gave in minute detail most vivid descriptions of places, saints, and demons about which they knew absolutely nothing. The saints were pictured as of fair complexion, with light hair and blue eyes. Satan was described as having dark, ^{Ælfric} shaggy hair hanging down to his ankles. ^{955 7-1020.} Sparks flew from his eyes and sulphurous flames from his mouth. The most famous writer of these homilies was Ælfric, abbot of Ensham.

In the first two centuries after Alfred, the old poems composed in the north were rewritten in the form in which they have come down to us, that is, in the language of the south, of the West Saxons ; ^{Rewriting of old poems.} but little was produced that could be called poetry. The *Chronicle* was continued, and one or two bold battle-songs were inserted ; and a few rude ballads were composed, with little of the old alliteration, and with only a beginning of appreciation of rhyme.

Glancing back over the literature of England, we can see that it had been much affected by the influence of the Celts. From the sixth century to the ninth, the Christian schools of Ireland were ^{Influence of the Celts.} famous throughout Europe, and the Irish missionaries taught the religion of Christ to the Northumbrians. The Teutons and the Celts were not at all alike. The Teutons thought somewhat slowly. They were given to pondering on difficult subjects and trying to explain puzzling questions. The Celts thought and felt swiftly ; a word would make them smile, and a word would arouse their sympathy. The Teutons liked stories of brave chiefs who led their thegns in battle and shared with them the treasures that were won, of thegns who were faithful to their lord, and who at his death heaped up a great mound

of earth to keep his name in lasting remembrance. The Celts, too, were fond of stories, but stories that were full of bright and beautiful descriptions, of birds of brilliant colouring, of marvellous secrets, and of mysterious voices. They liked battle scenes wherein strange mists floated about the warriors and weird phantoms were dimly seen in the gathering darkness.

To say just when and where the Celtic influence touched English literature is not easy ; but, comparing the grave, stern resolution of *Beowulf*, with the imaginative beauty, the graceful fancy, and the tender sentiment of the *Dream of the Rood*, and the picturesque and witty descriptions of the homilies, one can but feel that there is something in the literature of the English Teutons which did not come from themselves, and which can be accounted for in no other way than by their contact with the Celts.

William the Norman conquers England. The beginnings of a noble literature had been made in England, but the inspiration had become scanty. The English writer needed not only to read something better than he had yet produced, but even more he needed to know a race to whom that "something better" was familiar. In 1066, an event occurred that brought him both men and models : William the Norman conquered England and became its king.

CHAPTER II

TWELFTH AND THIRTEENTH CENTURIES

THE NORMAN-ENGLISH PERIOD

Advantages of the Conquest. Nothing better could have happened to England than this Norman conquest. The Englishmen of the eleventh century were courageous and persistent, but the spark of inspiration that gives a people the mastery of itself and the leadership of other nations was wanting. England was like a great vessel rolling in the trough of the sea, turning broadside to every wave. The country must fall into the hands of either the barbaric north or the civilized south. Happily for England, the victor was of the south.

The Normans were Teutons, who had fallen upon France as their kinsmen had fallen upon England; but the invaders of France had been thrown among a race superior to them in manners, ^{The} ~~Normans.~~ language, and literature. These northern pirates gave a look about them, and straightway they began to follow the customs of the people whom they had conquered. They embraced the Christian religion and built churches and monasteries as if they had been to the manner born. They forgot their own language and adopted that of France. They intermarried with the Franks; and in a century and a half a new race had arisen with the bravery and

energy of the Northmen and an aptitude for even more courtly manners and even wider literary culture than the Franks themselves.

The Struggle between the French and English Languages. Such were the Norman conquerors of England. How would their coming affect the language and the literature of the subject country? It was three hundred years before the question was fully answered. At first the Norman spoke French, the Englishman spoke English, and both nations used Latin in the church service. Little by little, the Norman found it convenient to know something of the language spoken by the masses of the people around him. Little by little, the Englishman acquired some knowledge of the language of his rulers. Words that were nearly alike in both tongues were confused in pronunciation, and as for spelling—a man's mode of spelling was his private property, and he did with his own as he would. It is hard to trace the history of the two languages in England until the middle of the thirteenth century, and then we find a few landmarks. In 1258 Henry III. issued his proclamation to the nation in English as well as in French and Latin. In 1300 Oxford allowed people who had suits at law to plead in "any language generally understood." Fifty years later, English was taught to some extent in the schools. In 1362, it became the official language of the courts and about 1385 John of Trevisa wrote that in all the grammar schools of England since the year of the Black Death (1349), "children give up French and construe and learn in English, and have thereby advantage on one side and disadvantage on another. Their advantage is that they learn their grammar in less time than

children were wont to do ; the disadvantage is that now grammar-school children know no more French than their left heel knows." In 1400, the Earl of March offered his aid to the king and wrote his letter in English, making no further apology for using his native tongue than the somewhat independent one, "It is more clear to my understanding than Latin or French."

In this contest, three centuries long, English had come off victor, but it was a different English from that of earlier times. Hundreds of new nouns, ^{The new} verbs, and adjectives had entered it, but they ^{English.} had been forced to wear the English garb. To speak broadly, verbs had adopted English endings ; adjectives had adopted English comparisons ; nouns had given up their case-endings and also their gender in great degree, for the simplest remedy for the frequent conflict between the English and French gender was to drop all distinctions of gender so far as inanimate objects were concerned.

How did the coming of the Norman affect the literature of England ? As soon as the shock of conquest was somewhat past, the English unconsciously began, in the old Teutonic fashion, to look about them and see what ways worthier than their own they could adopt. They had refused to become a French-speaking people, but was there anything in Norman literature and literary methods worthy of their imitation, or rather assimilation ?

Opening of the universities, and the crusades. The Normans had a taste for history, they were a religious people, and they thoroughly enjoyed story-telling. Two other influences were brought to bear upon the English : the opening of the universities and

the crusades. The first made it possible for a man to obtain an education even if he had no desire to become a priest. The second threw open the treasures of the world. Thousands set out on these expeditions to rescue the tomb of Christ from the power of the unbelievers. Those who returned brought with them a wealth of new ideas. They had seen new countries and new manners. They had learned to think new thoughts.

The opening of the universities made it possible for chronicles to be written, not only by monks in the monasteries, but by men who lived in the midst of the events that they described. Chronicles were no longer mere annals; they became full of detail, vivid, interesting.

Devotional books. The religious energy of the Normans and the untiring zeal of the preachers strengthened the English interest in religious matters. The sacred motive of the crusades intensified it, and books of devotion appeared, not in Latin, like the chronicles, but in simple, every-day English. One of the best known of these was the *Ormulum*, a book which gives a metrical paraphrase of the Gospels as used in the church service, each portion followed by a metrical sermon, or commentary. Its author kept a sturdy hold upon his future fame in his couplet,

Thiss boc iss nemmedd Ormulum
Forrthi thatt Orm itt worhhte.

He was equally determined that his lines should be pronounced properly, and so after every short vowel he doubled the consonant. He even gave advance orders to whoever should copy his work :

And whoso shall will to write this book again another time, I bid him that he write it rightly, so as this book teacheth him, entirely as it is upon this first pattern, with all such rhymes as here are set, with just as many words, and that he look well that he write a letter twice where it upon this book is written in that wise.¹

Another of these books of devotion was the *Ancren Riwle*, a little prose work whose author is unknown. Its object was to guide three sisters who wished to withdraw from the world, though without taking the vows of the convent. It is almost sternly strict, but so pure and natural and earnest that it was deeply loved and appreciated.

Romances. The Norman delight in stories and the new ideas given by the crusades aroused in the English a keen love of romance. The conquest itself was romantic. The chivalry introduced by the Normans was picturesque. It adorned the stern Saxon idea of duty with richness and grace. Simple old legends took form and beauty. Four great cycles of romance were produced; that is, four groups of stories told in metre, each centred about some one hero. One was about Charlemagne, one about Alexander the Great, one told the tale of the fall of Troy, and one pictured King Arthur and his knights. This last cycle had a curious history. Before the middle of the twelfth century, one Geoffrey of Monmouth, a Welsh bishop, wrote in Latin an exceedingly fanciful *History of the Kings of Britain*, which included an account of Arthur. Wace, a French clerk, added to this and used it as the foundation of

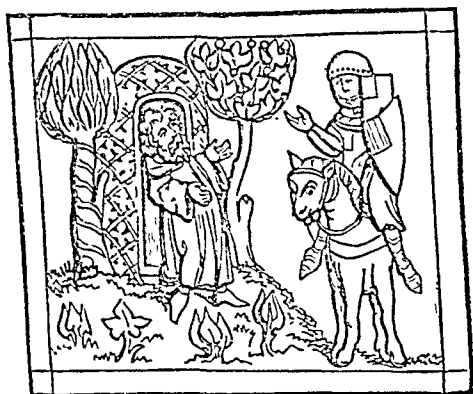
The An-
cren
Riwle,
about
1225.

The four
cycles of
romance.

Geoffrey of
Monmouth,
1100 ?-1154.

¹ Translated in Morley's *English Writers*, iii.

his long metrical chronicle, *Geste des Bretons*, or *Brut d'Angleterre* (1155). The story of Arthur was thus carried to France, it wandered over the Continent, was smoothed and beautified, and, having gained the stories of Launcelot and the Holy Grail, returned to



SIR LAUNCELOT AND A HERMIT

From an illuminated MS. of 1316.

England, and was put into English verse by the Layamon's English priest Layamon. He called it the *Brut*, about 1205. *Brut*, or story of Brutus, a fabled descendant of Æneas, who was supposed to have landed on the shores of England in prehistoric times. This cycle was the special favourite of the English. The marvellous adventures of King Arthur's knights interested those who had been thrilled by the stories of returning crusaders; and the quest of the knights for but one glance of that Holy Cup, the Grail, was in full accord with the spirit of the crusades—an earthly journey with a spiritual gain as its object and reward.

The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, as we have seen, came

to an end in 1154. The *Ormulum*, the *Ancren Riwle*, and the *Brut* all belong to the early part of the thirteenth century. They are English in their feeling; but as the years passed, French romances were sung throughout the land—^{French} romances, in French where French was understood, in English translation elsewhere. One of the best liked of these was *King Horn*. Its story is :

The kingdom of Horn's father is invaded by the Saracens, who kill the father and put Horn ^{King} and his companions to sea. King Aylmar ^{Horn, probably} receives them, and orders them to be taught ^{after 1250.} various duties. Of Horn he says :

And tech him to harpe
With his nayles scharpe,
Bivore me to kerve
And of the cupe serve,—

the usual accomplishments of the page. The king's daughter, Rymenhild, falls in love with Horn; and no wonder, if the description of him is correct :

He was bright so the glas,
He was whit so the flur,
Rose red was his colur,
In none kinge-riche
Nas non his iliche.

He goes in quest of adventures, to prove himself worthy of Rymenhild. The course of their love does not run smooth. King Aylmar presents a most eligible king as his daughter's suitor; Horn's false friend tries to win her; she is shut up in an island castle; but Horn, in the disguise of a pilgrim, makes his way into the castle and wins his Rymenhild. He kills his false friend; he finds that his mother still lives; he regains his father's kingdom; and so the

tale ends. This story is thoroughly French in its treatment of woman. In *Beowulf*, the wife of the lord is respected and honoured, she is her lord's friend and helpmeet; but there is no romance about the matter. To picture the smile of woman as the reward of valour, and her hand as the prize of victory, was left to the verses of those poets who were familiar with the glamour of knighthood.

The Norman-English love of nature. This new race, the Norman-English, enjoyed romance, they liked the new and the unwonted, but there was ever a warm corner in their hearts for nature. The dash of the waves, the keen breath of the northern wind, the coming of spring, the song of the cuckoo, the gleam of the daisy—they loved them all; and in the midst of the romances of knights and Saracens and foreign countries, they felt a tenderness toward what was their very own, the world of nature. Simple, tender, graceful little lyric poems slipped in shyly among the more pretentious histories, religious handbooks, and paraphrases. Here are bits from them:

Nature
lyrics.

Sumer is icumen in,
Lhude sing cuccu;
Groweth sede, and bloweth mede,
And springeth the wude nu,
Sing cuccu, cuccu!

or this:

Dayes-eyes in the dales,
Notes sweete of nyhtegales,
Each fowl song singeth,

or this, which has a touch of the French love romance:

Blow, northerne wynd,
Send thou me my suetyng.
Blow, northerne wynd,
Blow, blow, blow!

The Robin Hood ballads. Not only love of nature but love of freedom and love of justice inspired the ballads of Robin Hood, many of which must have originated during this period, though probably they did not take their present form till much later. They are crude, simple stories in rhyme of the exploits of Robin Hood and his men, and they come straight from the heart of the Englishman, that bold, defiant heart which always beat more



A BAND OF MINSTRELS
From a fourteenth-century MS.

fiercely at the thought of injustice. Robin and his friends are exiles because they have dared to shoot the king's deer, and they have taken up their abode in "merry Sherwood." There they waylay the sheriff and the "proud bishop," and force them to open their well-filled purses and count out the gold pieces that are to make life easier for many a poor man. These ballads were not for palaces or for monasteries, they were for the English people; and the ballad-singers went about from village to village, singing to one group after another, adding a rhyme, or a stanza, or an adventure at every repetition. Gradually the tales of the "courteous outlaw" were forming themselves into a cycle of romance, but the days of the printing-press came too soon for its completion. Whether Robin was ever a "real, live hero" is not of the least consequence. The point of interest is that the ballads which picture

his adventures are the free, bold expression of the sincere feelings of the Englishman in the early years of his forced submission to Norman rule.

Value of the Norman-English writings. The writings of the first two centuries after the Norman conquest are, as a whole, of small worth. With the increasing number of translations, such a world of literature was thrown open to the English that they were dazzled with excess of light. Daringly, but half timidly, they ventured to step forward, to try one thing after another. No one could expect finish and completeness ; the most that could be looked for was some beginning of poetry that should show imagination, of prose that should show power. So ended the thirteenth century, in a kind of morning twilight of literature. The fourteenth was the time of the dawning, the century of Chaucer.

CHAPTER III

FOURTEENTH CENTURY

CHAUCER'S CENTURY

England in the Fourteenth Century. The fourteenth century was not only the dawning of modern English literature, but it was the dawning of English thought. Before this time kings had thought how to keep their thrones ; barons had thought how to prevent kings from becoming too powerful ; priests and monks had thought, sometimes how to teach the people, sometimes how to get the most possible from them ; but the masses of the English people never seemed to think of anything that was of interest to them all until about the middle of the fourteenth century.

One special reason for this beginning of English thought was that many thousands of Englishmen had become more free than ever before. England had long been controlled by what is known as the feudal system ; that is, a tenure of land on condition of service. The cultivated portions of England were divided into great manors, or farms, and each was held by some rich man on condition of giving his service to the king. On these manors lived the masses of the people, the villcins, or peasants. They were obliged as part of their duty to work for their lord a certain number of days every year, and they

were forbidden to leave the manor. During the crusades, the lords who went to the Holy Land needed a great deal of money, and they often allowed their tenants to give them money instead of service. Sometimes they sold them land. The crusades came practically to an end in the thirteenth century, and during the early years of the fourteenth the peasants were already beginning to feel somewhat independent.

In 1338, the Hundred Years' War broke out between England and France. In 1346, an important battle was won at Crécy, not by English knights on horseback with swords and lances, but by English peasants on foot with no weapons except bows and arrows. Then the peasants began to say to one another, "We can protect ourselves. Why should we remain on manors and depend upon knights in armour to fight for us?" Following close upon this battle was a terrible disease, called the Black Death, which swept over England. When it had gone, half of the people of the land were dead. Many of those peasants who survived ran away from the manors, for now that there were so few workmen, they could earn high wages anywhere. Moreover, weaving had been introduced, and if they did not wish to do farm-work, they could support themselves in any city. The king and his counsellors made severe laws against this running away; but they could not well be enforced, and they only made the peasants angry with all who were richer or more powerful than themselves. They began to question, "How are these lords any greater folk than we? How do they deserve wealth any more than we? They came from Adam and Eve just as we did."

The masses of the people, then, were angry with the nobles and the other wealthy men. They were also discontented with the church. After the Black Death there was hardly a person in England who was not mourning the loss of dear friends. Especially the poor longed for the comfort that the church should have given them; but the church paid little attention to their needs. Many of the clergy who received the income from English benefices lived in Italy, and had no further interest in England than to get as much from the land as possible. While the peasants were in such poverty, vast sums of money were being sent to these Italian priests, for fully half the land was in the hands of the church. The church did less and less for men, while the vision of what it ought to do was growing clearer. Thousands of these unhappy, discontented peasants marched up to London to demand of the king their freedom and other rights and privileges. This was the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. Their demands were not granted, and the revolt was severely punished.

Discontent
with the
church.

The
Peasants
Revolt,
1381.

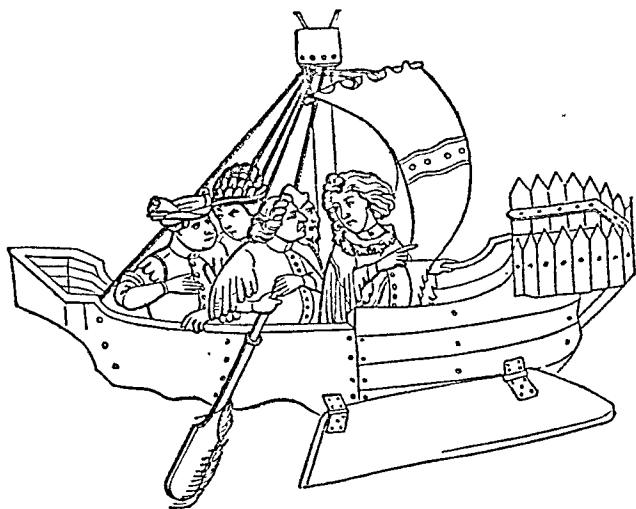
In this century of unrest and change there were four authors whose writings are characteristic of the manner in which four classes of people regarded the state of affairs. They were:

Four
prominent
authors.

(1) "Sir John Mandeville," who simply accepted things as they were; (2) William Langland, who criticized and wished to reform; (3) Wyclif, who criticized and wished to overthrow; and (4) Chaucer, the good-humoured courtier, who saw the faults of his times, but gently ridiculed them rather than preached against them.

The Voyages and Travels of Sir John Mande-

ville, Kt. This account of distant countries and strange peoples purports to have been written by Sir John himself. He claims to be an English knight who has often journeyed to Jerusalem, and who puts forth



SIR JOHN MANDEVILLE ON HIS VOYAGE TO PALESTINE

From an old MS. in the British Museum.

this volume to serve as a guide-book to those wishing to make the pilgrimage. The introduction seems so "real" that it is a pity to be obliged to admit that the work is probably a combination of a few travellers' stories and a vast amount of imagination, and that, worse than all, there never was any "Sir John." It was first written in French, and then translated into English either in the fourteenth century or the early part of the fifteenth. The traveller has most marvellous experiences. He finds that in the Dead Sea

iron will float, while a feather will drop to the bottom. "And these be things against kind [nature]," says Sir John. He sees in Africa people who have but one foot. "They go so fast that it is marvel," he declares, "and the foot is so large that it shadoweth all the body against the sun when they will lie and rest themselves." Sometimes he brings in a bit of science. From his observations of the North Star he reasons that "Men may go all round the world and return to their country; and always they would find men, lands, and isles, as well as in our part of the world." When he touches on religious customs, he becomes especially interesting, for in the midst of the unrest and discontent of his age he has no fault to find with laws or the church; and with all his devotion to the church, he has no blame for those whose belief differs from his own. "They fail in some articles of our faith," is his only criticism of the Moslems.

William Langland, 1330 ?-1400 ? William Langland was the principal author of the *Vision of Piers Plowman*. The first MS. of it that is known is of 1362; but in the following twenty or thirty years a good many other MSS. were written, and most of them had additions made to them. It is not known who made these additions, but Langland certainly was not the author of all of them. Very little is known of Langland save that he was probably brought up in the monastery at Great Malvern. He knew the lives of the poor so well that it is possible he was the son of a peasant living on a manor, and became free on declaring his intention to enter the service of the church. His *Vision* comes to him one May morning

The Vision
of Piers
Plowman,
first
version
1362.

when, as he says, in the alliterative verse of *Beowulf*, but in words much more like modern English :

I was wery forwanded¹ and went me to reste
Under a brode banke, bi a bornes² syde,
And as I lay and lened, and loked on the wateres,
I slombred in a slepyng ; it sownede³ so merye.

In his dream he sees "a faire felde full of folke." There are ploughmen, hermits, men who buy and sell, minstrels, jugglers, beggars, pilgrims, lords and ladies, a king, a jester, and many others. They are all absorbed in their own affairs, but Repentance preaches to them so earnestly about their sins that finally they all vow to make a pilgrimage to the shrine of Truth. No one can tell them where to find the shrine. At last they ask Piers the Plowman to go with them and show them the way. "If I had plowed and sowed my half-acre, I would go with you," he replied. The pilgrims agree to help him, and he sets them all to work. While they are working, God sends a pardon for them ; but a priest who sees it declares that it is no pardon, for it says only that if men do well, they shall be saved.

This ends the vision, but Piers dreams again. "Do well, do better, do best," is the keynote of this dream.

"Do well, do better, do best." One does well who is moral and upright ; he does better who is filled with love and kindness ; he does best who follows most closely the life of Christ. Finally, Piers is seen in a halo of light, for this leader who works and loves and strives to save others represents the Christ himself.

This work is the last important poem written in the old alliterative metre of *Beowulf*. It is an allegory, and there are in it such characters as Lady Meed

¹ weary with wandering.

² brook's.

³ sounded.

(bribery), Holy Church, Conscience, Sir Work-well-with-thine-hand, Sir Good-faith Go-well, Guile, and Reason. Reason's two horses are Advise-thee-before and Suffer-till-I-see-my-time. The liking for allegories came from the French, but the puzzling over hard questions of life and destiny was one of the characteristics of the early Teutons. Langland saw the trouble and wrong around him; he saw the hard lives of the poor and the laws that oppressed them; he saw just where the church failed to teach and to comfort them; yet this fourteenth-century Puritan never thought of revolt. Some few changes in the laws, more earnestness and sincerity in the church, and above all, an effort on the part of each to "do best,"—and the eager reformer believed that happiness would smile upon the world of England. In 1361, only one year before this poem first appeared, the Black Death had for the second time swept over the land. For the second time a great wave of hopeless sorrow and helplessness had overwhelmed the hearts of the people. Langland had put into words what was in everyone's thoughts. It is no wonder that his poem was read by thousands; that men saw more clearly than ever the evils of the times; that they began to look about them for strength to bear their lives, for help to make them better.

John Wyclif, 1324?-1384. The strength and help were already on the way, for while additions were being made to Langland's poem, a learned priest named John Wyclif was translating the Bible into the language of the people. Wyclif was a very interesting man. Until he was about forty, he was a quiet student and preacher. Suddenly he appeared in public as the opponent of

Wyclif's
translation of the
Bible.
1380.

the pope himself. The pope claimed that England had not paid him his proper tax for many years. "We need the money," declared Wyclif, "and surely a people has a right to self-preservation."

The king and the clergy supported the bold patriot, and they were not at all annoyed while he preached against the sins of the monks; but when he was not satisfied with calling for the purification of the church, and for better lives on the part of the clergy and the monks, but began to preach and write against transubstantiation and other doctrines, they were indignant. The authorities in England tried

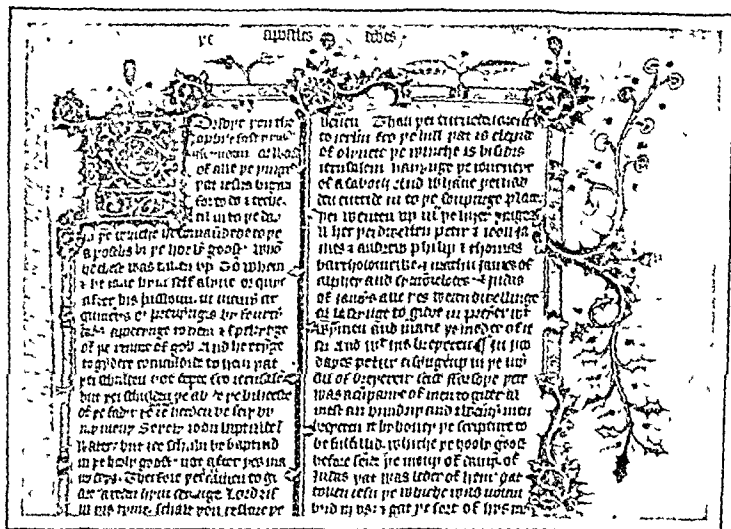


JOHN WYCLIF,
1324?-1384

to arrest him, and the pope commanded that he be brought to Rome; but still he sent his tracts over the length and breadth of the country. He wrote no more in Latin, but in simple, straightforward English that the plain people could understand. Such is the English of his translation of the Scriptures. The following is a specimen of its language:

Blessid be pore men in spirit : for the kyngdom of hevenes is herum. Blessid ben mylde men : for thei schulen weelde the erthe. Blessid ben thei that mournen : for thei schal be counfortid. Blessid be thei that hungren and thursten after rigtwisnesse : for thei schal be fulfillid. Blessid ben merciful men : for thei schal gete mercy. Blessid ben thei that ben of clene herte : for thei schulen se god : Blessid ben pesible men : for thei schulen be clepid goddis children. Blessid ben thei that suffren persecucioun for rigtwisnesse : for the kyngdom of hevenes is hern.

Many churchmen honestly believed that it was wrong to give the Bible to those who were not scholars, lest they should not understand it aright; and even more were either shocked or angry at Wyclif's daring



A PORTION OF WYCLIF'S BIBLE

to criticize the teachings of the church and the lives of the clergy. Persecution arose against the preacher and his followers. He was protected by powerful friends; but, forty-four years after his death, his grave was opened, his bones burned, and the ashes tossed scornfully into the river Swift. It was easier, however, for his opponents to fling away his ashes than to destroy his influence upon the people and upon the language. His Bible was in manuscript, of course, because printing had not yet been invented; but it was read and re-read by thousands, and the

Perse-
cution of
Wyclif.

plain, strong words used by himself and his assistants became a part of the every-day language. Moreover, this translation showed that an English sentence need not be loose and rambling, but might be as clear and definite as a Latin sentence, and that English as well as Latin could express close reasoning and keen argument.

Geoffrey Chaucer, 1340?-1400. While Wyclif was preaching at Oxford and Langland had not yet begun to work on his *Pision*, a young page was growing up in the house of the Duke of Clarence who was destined to become the prince of story-tellers in verse. This young Geoffrey Chaucer was the son of a wine merchant of London. He lived like other courtiers; he went to France to help fight his king's battles, was taken prisoner, was ransomed and set free. He wrote some love verses in the French fashion and translated some French poems, but he would have been somewhat amazed if any one had told him that he would be known five hundred years later as the "Father of English Poetry."

By 1372, the young courtier had become a man "of some respect," and the king sent him on diplomatic missions to various countries, twice at least to Italy. The literature of Italy was far in advance of that of England, and now the works of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio were open to the poet diplomat. Finally, Chaucer was again in England; and when he wrote, he wrote like an Englishman, but like an Englishman who was familiar with the best that France and Italy had to give.

The Canterbury Tales. A collection of stories written by Boccaccio was probably what suggested to Chaucer the writing of a similar collection. Boccaccio's stories are told by a com-

Boccaccio
and
Chaucer.

pilgrimage to the shrine of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. Boccaccio's people were of nearly the same rank; but on a pilgrimage all sorts of folk were sure to meet, and therefore Chaucer was perfectly free to introduce any kind of person that he chose.

Making a pilgrimage was a common thing in those days, and people went for various reasons: Pilgrim-
ages. some to pray and make offerings to the saint whom they believed had helped them in sickness or trouble, some to petition for a favour, some for the pleasure of making a journey, and some simply because others were going. Travelling alone was not agreeable and not always safe, therefore these pilgrims often set out in companies, and a merry time they made of it. Some even took minstrels and bagpipes to amuse them on the road.

The *Canterbury Tales* is Chaucer's best work. It begins on a bright spring morning, when he had gone to the Tabard Inn in Southwark for the first stage in his pilgrimage to Canterbury. Just as night fell, a party of twenty-nine rode up to the door of the inn, and the solitary traveller was delighted to find that they, too, had set out on the same errand. There was nothing shy or unsocial about this pilgrim, and before bedtime came, he had made friends with them all, and had agreed to join their party. A very cheerful party it was, and these good-natured travellers were pleased with the rooms, the stables, the supper, the wine, and especially with the land'ord, Harry Bailey, whom the poet calls "a merry man." After supper the host tells them that he never before saw so cheerful a company together at his inn. Then he talks about their journey. He says he knows well that they are not planning to make a gloomy time of it.

For trewely confort ne myrthe is noon
To ridé by the weye dounb as a stoon,

he declares ; and he proposes that each one of them shall tell two stories going and two more returning, and that when they have come back, a supper shall be given to the one who has told the best story. This pleases the pilgrims, and they are even more pleased when the cheery landlord offers to go with them, to be their guide and to judge the merit of the tales.

Then come the stories themselves. There are only twenty-five of them, and three of those are incomplete, for Chaucer never carried out his full plan. They are of all kinds. There are stories of knights and monks ;

of giants, fairies, miracles ; of the crafty fox who ran away with Chanticleer in his bag, but was persuaded by the no less crafty rooster to drop the bag and make a speech of defiance to his pursuers. There are stories of magic swords that would cut through any kind of armour, and there is a tale of "faire Emelye," the beloved of two young knights, one of whom was in prison and could only gaze upon her from afar, while the other was forbidden on pain of death to enter the city wherein she dwelt.

After the fashion of his day, Chaucer took the plots of his tales from wherever he might find them, but it



THE PRIORESS

From the Ellesmere MS., which is the best as well as one of the oldest of the Chaucer MSS.

is his way of telling the stories that is so fascinating. We cannot help fancying that he is talking directly to us, for he drops in so many little confidential "asides." "I have told you about the company of pilgrims," he says, "and now it is time to tell you what we did that night, and after that I



THE SQUIRE
From the Ellesmere MS.

will talk about our journey."

At the end of a subject he is fond of saying, "That is all. There is no more to say."

He is equally confidential when he describes his various characters, as he does in the *Prologue* before he begins his storytelling. It was no easy task to describe each one of a large company so accurately that we can almost see them, and so interestingly that we are in no haste to come to the stories; but Chaucer

was successful. He describes the knight, who had just returned from a journey, and was so eager to make his grateful pilgrimage that he had set out with his short cassock still stained from his coat of mail; the dainty young prioress, who had such perfect table-manners that she never dipped her fingers deep in the gravy—an important matter to table-mates before forks were in use—or let a drop fall on her breast; the sailor, whose beard had been shaken by many a tempest; the physician, who had not his equal in the whole world; the woman of Bath, with her "scarlet red" stockings, her soft new shoes, and her hat as broad as a buckler;

Chaucer's
charac-
ters.

and the gay young squire, whose gown "with sleeves longe and wyde" was so richly embroidered that it looked like a meadow "al ful of fresshe flourés whyte and reede." Chaucer gives us a picture of the merry

company, but more than that, he shows us what kind of people they were. He tells us their faults in satire as keen as it is good-natured. The monk likes hunting better than obeying strict convent rules, and Chaucer says of him slyly that when he rode, men could hear the little bells on his bridle jingle quite as loudly as the bell of the chapel. The learned physician was somewhat of a miser, and Chaucer whispers cannily :

For gold in physik is a cordial,
Therefore he lovéde gold in special.

The two characters for whom the poet has most sympathy are the thin and threadbare Oxford student, who would rather have books than gorgeous robes or musical instruments ; and the earnest, faithful parish priest, who "Christés Gospel trewely wolde preche," and who never hired some one to take charge of his parish while he slipped away to live an easy life in a brotherhood.

This keen-eyed poet, with his warm sympathy, could hardly have helped loving nature, and he can picture a bright, dewy May morning so clearly that we can almost see "the silver dropes hangyng on the leves." He liked May and



THE PARSON
From the Ellesmere MS.

Chaucer's
love of
nature.

sunshine and birds and lilies and roses. He liked the daisy, and when he caught sight of the first one, he wrote :

And down on knees anon right I me set,
And as I could this freshé flower I grette,
Kneeling always till it incloséd was
Upon the small and soft and sweeté grass.

Death of Chaucer, 1400. Chaucer's life was not all sunshine, but he was always sunny and bright. He writes as if he knew so many pleasant things that he could not help taking up his pen to tell us of them. His death occurred in 1400, and that date is counted as the end of the old literature and the beginning of the new. Chaucer well deserves the title, "Father of English Poetry;" but when we read his poems, we forget his titles and his learning, and think of him only as the best of story-tellers.

We owe gratitude to Chaucer not only because he left us some delightful poems, but because he broke away from the old Anglo-Saxon metre and because he wrote in English. The *Canterbury Tales* begins:

Chaucer's
language. Whan that Aprillé with hise shourés soote
The droghte of March hath percéd to the roote,
And bathéd every veyne in swich licour
Of which vertú engendred is the flour ;
Whan Zephirus eek with his sweté breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendré croppés, and the yongé sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfé cours y-ronne,
And smalé fowelés maken melodye
That slepen al the nyght with open eye,—
So priketh hem Natúre in hir coráges,—
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages.

This is written in the 5-beat line, which gives more freedom than the 4-beat line of *Beowulf*. Alliteration

is not employed to mark the accented syllables, but only to ornament the verse. Chaucer used many French words and often retained the French endings; but he used them so easily and so appropriately that they seemed to become a part of the language. Another service and an even greater one he rendered to the English tongue. People in different parts of England spoke in English, to be sure, but in widely differing dialects. Chaucer wrote in what is known as the London variety of the Midland dialect, and his work was so good and so well liked that it had a powerful influence to *fix* the language; that is, to make his writings and his vocabulary models for the authors who succeeded him.

CHAPTER IV

FIFTEENTH CENTURY

THE PEOPLES CENTURY

The imitators of Chaucer. Chaucer's poetry was so much better than any that had preceded it that the poets who lived in the early part of the fifteenth century made many attempts at imitation. They were not very successful. Chaucer wrote, for instance :

The bisy larké, messenger of day,
Salueth in hir song the morwé gray ;
And fiery Phœbus riseth up so brighte
That al the orient laugheth of the lighte,
And with his stremés dryeth in the greves
The silver droppés hangyng on the leves.

One of Chaucer's imitators wrote :

Ther he lay to the larké song
With notés newe, hegh up in the ayr.
The gladé morowe, rody and right fayr,
Phebus also casting up his bemes,
The heghé hyllés gilt with his stremes,
The syluer dewé upon the herbés rounde,
Ther Tydéus lay upon the grounde.

The best of these imitators was a king, James I of Scotland, who was captured by the English when he was a boy of about eleven, and was kept a prisoner in England for nearly nineteen years. During his captivity he fell in love with

James I
of Scot-
land,
1394-1437.

a member of the royal house, and to her he wrote the tender verses of *The King's Quair*.¹ He describes his loneliness as follows :

Bewailing in my chamber thus allone,
Despeired of all joye and remedye,
For-tirit of my thocht, and wo begone,
Unto the wyndow gan I walk in hye,
To se the warld and folk that went forby ;
As for the tyme, though I of mirthis fude
Myght have no more, to luke it did me gude.

He catches sight of the princess walking in the garden,

The fairest or the freschest younge floure
That ever I sawe, methought, before that houre.

He gazes at her ; then,

And in my hede I drew rycht hastily,
Ant eft sones I lent it out ageyne,
And saw hir walk that verray womanly,
With no wight mo, bot only women tueyne,
Than gan I studye in myself and seyne,
Ah ! suete, are ye a warldly creature,
Or hevinly thing in likeness of nature ?

So it is that the captive king wrote his love, with a frank, admiring imitation of Chaucer, but so simply and so naturally that he is more than a name on a printed page ; and it is really a pleasure to know that the course of his love ran smooth, and that he was finally allowed to return to his kingdom with the wife whom he had chosen. This seven-line stanza was not original with him by any means, but because a king had used it, it became known as "rhyme royal."

Sir Thomas Malory. This century began and ended with royalty, for in its early years we have King James of Scotland, and toward its end we have King

¹ Quire, or book.

Arthur of Britain. Sir Thomas Malory—of whom little is known—wrote the *Morte d'Arthur*, a collection of the old stories of King Arthur that had grown more full, more simple, and more beautiful than ever. "Thys noble and Joyous book," Caxton called it when he put it into print. At the close of Arthur's life he bids, according to Malory, "Syr Bedwere" to throw the sword Excalibur into the lake. Syr Bedwere obeys. Then says the author :

He threwe the swerde as farre in to the water as he myght, & there cam an arme and an hande aboue the water and mette it, & caught it and so shake it thryse and braundysshed, and then vanysshed awaye the hande wyth the swerde in the water. . . . Than syr Bedwere toke the Kyng vpon his backe and so wente wyth hym to that water syde, & whan they were at the water syde euen fast by the banke houed a lytyl barge wyth many fayr ladyes in hit, & emange hem al was a quene, and al they had blacke hoodes, and al they wepte and shryked whan they sawe Kyng Arthur. "Now put me in to the barge," sayd the kyng, and so he dyd softelye.

The age of arrest. The fifteenth century is sometimes called the "age of arrest" because it is not marked by any great literary work like that of Chaucer. There are good reasons why no such work should have been produced. First, the greater part of the century was full of warfare. The Hundred Years' War did not close until 1453, and there was hardly time to sharpen the battle-axes and put new strings to the bows before another war which had far more effect on the peace and welfare of the country-folk of England broke out, and did not come to an end until 1485. This was the War of the Roses which was fought between the supporters of rival claimants to the English throne. Some-

No great
literature
produced.

times one side had the advantage and sometimes the other; and whichever party was in power put to death the prominent men of the opposing party. Second, there was not only no rest or quiet in the kingdom for great literary productions, but at least half of the nobles, the people of leisure, were killed in the terrible slaughter. Third, the church, which paid no taxes, owned so much of the land that the whole burden of taxation had to be borne by only a part of the people.

Poor in literature as this century of fighting was, there were two reasons why it was good for the "common folk." In the first place, knight-hood was becoming of less and less value, partly because of the increasing use of gun-
Gain of the common people.
powder, but even more because the English had at last learned that a man encased in armour so heavy that he could hardly mount his horse without help was not so valuable a soldier as a man on foot with a bow or a battle-axe. In the second place, war could not be carried on without money, and money must come by vote of the House of Commons, which represented, however poorly and unfairly, the masses of the people. If the king and his counsellors wished to obtain money, they were obliged to pay more attention than ever before to the desires of the people.

Ballads. It was from the common folk that the most interesting literature of the century came, the ballads. An age of turmoil and unrest was, as has been said, no time for elaborate literary work, but the flashes of excitement, the news of a battle lost or a battle won, the story of some brave fighter returning from the war—all these inspired short, strong ballads. Of course there had been many ballads before then, especially those of Robin Hood, but the fifteenth was

the special century of the ballad, the time when the strong undercurrent of this poetry of the people came most conspicuously to the surface. No one knows who composed these ballads, but the wording shows that many of them came from Scotland, and were inspired by the wild forays that were continually taking place between the Scots and the English who dwelt near the border line of the two countries. The most famous of all the Border ballads is that of *Chevy Chase*, which begins :

The Persé out of Northomberlonde,
and a vowe to God mayd he
That he wold hunte in the mountayns
off Chyviat within days thre
In the magger of doughté Dogles,
and all that ever with him be.

The marks
of a
ballad.

A ballad is not merely a story told in rhyme ; it has several distinctive marks :

(1) It plunges into the tale without a moment's delay. There is not a shade of Chaucer's leisurely description. *Chevy Chase* does not even stop to explain who the two heroes, Percy and Douglas, may be.

(2) It does something and says something. Every word counts in the story. We know from their deeds and words what the ballad people think, but "He longed strange countries for to see," or he "fell in love with Barbara Allen," is about as near a description of their thoughts as the ballad ever gives.

(3) It is very definite. If people are bad, they are very bad ; and if they are good, they are very good. "Alison Gross" is "the ugliest witch in the north countrie." The bonny maiden is the fairest flower of all England. Colours are bright and strong :

O bonnie, bonnie was her mouth
 And cherry were her cheeks ;
 And clear, clear was her yellow hair,
 Whereon the red blude droop'd.

Comparisons are of the simplest : the maiden has a milk-white hand, her cheeks are red as a rose, and her eyes are blue as the sky.

(4) The metre is almost always 4, 3, 4, 3 ; that is, the first and third lines contain four accented syllables, the second and fourth contain three. The second and fourth lines rhyme, sometimes the first and third also. The final syllable often receives an accent even when there would be none in prose.

(5) Most of the ballads show the touch of the Celt. There are weird stories of the return of ghostly lovers ; there are fascinating little gleams of fairyland, of beauty and of happiness, but often with a shade of sadness or loneliness, the unmistakable mark of the Celtic nature, that could turn from smiles to tears in the flashing of a moment.

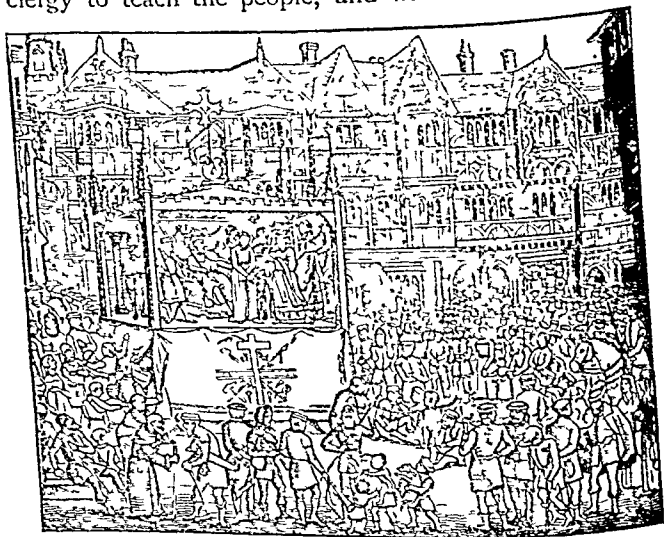
O sweetly sang the blackbird
 That sat upon the tree ;
 But sairer grat I amkin
 When he was condemned to dee.

We do not know who composed the older ballads. Indeed, each one seems to have grown up almost like a little epic. The gleeman wandered from village to village, singing to groups of listeners, whose rapt eagerness was his inspiration. He sang his song again and again, each time adding to it or taking from it, according to whether his invention or his memory were the better. Moreover, there was no private ownership in ballad land. Any ballad was welcome to a line or a stanza from any other. Little

Composi-
 tion of the
 ballads.

by little the song grew until finally its form was more or less fixed by the coming of the printing-press.

Mystery plays. The fifteenth century was the time when the mystery or miracle play was at its best. This kind of play originated in the attempts of the clergy to teach the people, and was common on the



A MYSTERY PLAY AT COVENTRY

From an old print

Continent long before the coming of the Normans to England. There were few books and few who could read. Therefore the clergy conceived the idea of acting in the church short plays presenting scenes from the Bible. To give room for more people to hear, the play was soon performed on a platform in the churchyard. Gradually the acting was given up by the priests and fell into the hands of the parish clerks;

then into those of the guilds, or companies of tradesmen, for long before the fifteenth century the men of each craft had formed themselves into a guild. Slowly

Cycles. the plays became cycles, each cycle following the Bible story from *Genesis* to the end of the *Gospels*, sometimes to the *Revelation*. Each guild had in charge the presentation of one story or more. The acting was no longer in the churchyards, but at different convenient stations in the town. The stage was a great two-story or three-story wagon called a pageant. An important part of the scenery was "hell mouth," represented by a pair of widely gaping jaws full of smoke and flames, into which unrepentant sinners were summarily hurled and from which Satan issued to take his part in the drama. The plays were always acted in biblical order. When one play was ended, the pageant moved on, leaving the place free for the next play, so that a person remaining at any one station could see the whole cycle.

To modern ideas there are some things in these plays that seem irreverent; for instance, the *Seeming* representation of God the Father on the *irreverence*. stage. In one of the plays of the creation He is made to say familiarly :

Adam and Eve, this is the place
That I have graunte you of my grace
To have your wonnyng¹ in ;
Erbes, spyce, frute on tree,
Beastes, fewles,² all that ye see,
Shall bowe to you, more and myn.³
This place hight paradyce,
Here shall your joys begynne,
And yf that ye be wyse,
From thys thair⁴ ye never twynne.⁵

¹ dwelling.² fowls.³ great and small.⁴ need.⁵ depart.

Again, when the angels appear to the shepherds to sing of peace on earth, one of the shepherds says, "I can sing it as well as he, if you will help;" and he tries to imitate the heavenly song.

The makers of the mystery plays knew as well as the writers of homilies that if the attention of the people was to be retained, there must be **Comical scenes.** amusement as well as instruction, and therefore they did not hesitate to introduce comical scenes. The antics of Satan were made to provide a vast amount of amusement; and even more respectable scriptural characters were impressed into the service of making fun to gratify the demands of the spectators. After Noah has built his ark, he requests his wife to come into it, but she objects. Noah ought not to have worked on that ark one hundred years before telling her what he was doing, she says; at any rate, she must go home to pack her belongings; she does not believe it will rain long, and if it does, she will not be saved without her cousins and her friends. She is finally persuaded to enter the ark. At last the door is closed, and Noah might well offer up a prayer of gratitude or sing a hymn of praise for the safety of himself and his family; but, instead, he proceeds to give most prosaic directions to his sons to take good care of the cattle, and to his daughters-in-law to be sure to feed the fowls.

With all their crudeness, these plays are often gentle and sympathetic. Joseph watches over Mary most lovingly. "My daughter," he tenderly calls **Tender-** her. At the crucifixion John's words of **ness of the** comfort to the sorrowing mother are very **plays** touching. "My heart is gladder than gladness itself," says Mary Magdalene at the resurrection. Such were

the plays that pleased the people; for they were simple, childlike, warm-hearted, ready to be amused, satisfied with the rudest jesting, and accustomed to treat sacred things with familiarity, but with no conscious irreverence. Going to a mystery play, like going on a pilgrimage, was a religious duty; but the mediæval mind saw no reason why duty and amusement should not be agreeably united.

Miracle plays and moralities. In England these plays were more frequently called miracle plays, though this name was applied elsewhere only to dramas based not upon biblical scenes, but upon legends of saints or martyrs. Often one kind of play blended with another; for instance, *Mary Magdalene* introduces scenes from the life of Christ, like a mystery; it follows out the legends of the heroine, like a miracle; it also leads to a third variety of play, the morality, in that it introduces abstract characters, such as Sloth, Gluttony, Wrath, and Envy, for in the morality the characters were the virtues and vices. What amusement was in them was made by the Devil and a new character, the Vice, who played tricks on Satan in much the fashion of the clown or fool of later days. At first sight, the morality seems dreary reading, especially when compared with the liveliness and rapid action of the mystery. There is no dreariness, however, to one who reads between the lines and is mindful of how intensely real the story was to those who listened to it in the earlier ages. One of the *Everyman*. best of the moralities is *Everyman*, which was taken from the Dutch. In this play, Death, God's messenger, is sent to bid the merry young *Everyman* to make the long journey. *Everyman* pleads for a respite, he offers a bribe, he begs that some one may go with

him. "Yea, yf ony be so hardy," Death replies. Then Everyman in sore distress appeals to Fellowship to keep him company.

For no man that is lyvyng to daye
I will not go that lothe journeye,

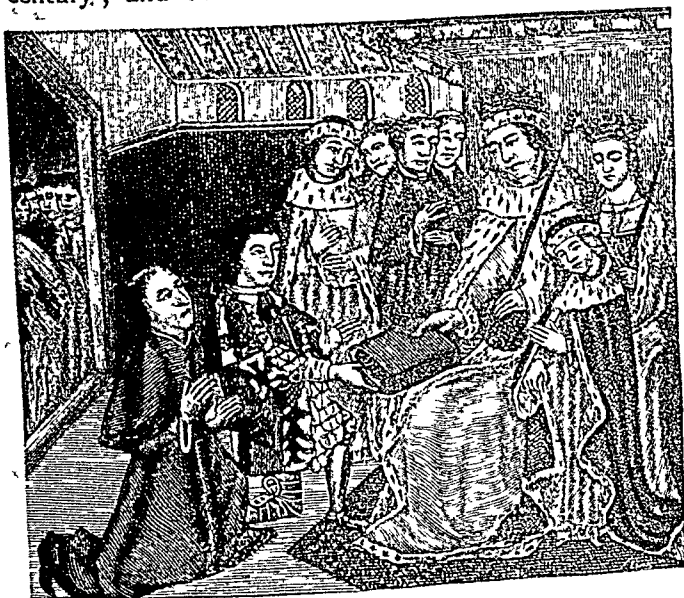
replies Fellowship. Kindred refuse the petition. Good Deeds would go with him, but Everyman's sins have so weighed her down that she is too weak to stand. At last Knowledge leads him to confession. He does penance and starts on his lonely pilgrimage. One by one, Beauty, Strength, Honour, Discretion, and his Five Wits forsake him. Good Deeds alone stands as his friend, and says sturdily with renewed strength, "Fere not, I wyll speke for the." Everyman descends fearfully but trustfully into the grave. Knowledge cries, "Nowe hath he suffred that we all shall endure;" and the play ends with a solemn prayer:

And he that hath his accounte hole and sounde,
Hye in heven he shall be crounde,
Unto whiche place God brynge us all thyder
That we may lyve body and soule togyder.

This is not amusing, but it is far from being dull. With the simple stage setting of four centuries ago, the realistic grave, and the ghastly, ashen-grey figure of Death, it must have thrilled and solemnified the hushed listeners as neither play nor sermon could do in later generations.

Introduction of printing into England, 1476. In the last quarter of the century there were two notable events that were destined to do more for the masses of the people than anything that had preceded them. The first of these events was the introduction of printing into England. Through these centuries of the

beginning of literature, plays, homilies, poems and lengthy books of prose had all been copied by the pen on parchment or vellum. Printing with movable types was a German invention of about the middle of the century; and there are many who think that the



CAXTON PRESENTED TO EDWARD IV

Earl Rivers giving the book to the King, while Caxton kneels beside him

"block books," cheap picture books printed on a coarse, heavy paper from wooden blocks, some of which contained text also, slightly preceded these in date.

Fortunately for English book lovers, an Englishman named William Caxton, who was then living in the Low Countries, was interested in the wonderful new art, and paid well for lessons in type-setting and all the other details of the trade. He

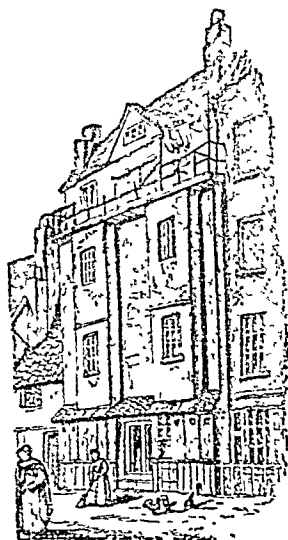
William
Caxton,
1422?-
1491.

was not only a keen business man, who thought money could be made by printing, but he was also a man

of literary taste and ability, and the first English book

that he printed was a translation of his own, called *The Recuyell of the Histories of Troye*. He wrote triumphantly to a friend that his book was "not written with pen and ink as other books be." This was in 1474. Two years later, he and his press came to England, and there he printed volume after volume. The *Canterbury Tales*, Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*, Æsop's *Fables*, and in all about one hundred volumes came from his press.

In the simple, primitive fashion of the fifteenth century, which ascribed to Satanic agency whatever was new or mysterious, there were many people in England who looked upon Caxton's magical output of books as unquestionably the work of the devil; but the press was still kept busy, and the price of books became rapidly less. Before Caxton began to print, they were enormously expensive. A library of twenty or thirty volumes was looked upon as a rare collection; and it was no wonder, for the usual rate for copying was a sum equal to-day to nearly



ALMONRY, WESTMINSTER, WHERE WAS CAXTON'S PRINTING OFFICE

Decrease
in the
price of
books.

half a crown a page. Seven or eight pounds would have purchased any printed book in those days, so how amazed would Caxton have been if he could have looked forward to 1911 and seen a copy of his edition of Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* sold for nearly £8,500!

Signs of Progress. England was not so wildly

If it please any man spiritual or temporal to buye any
 pces of two and thre commemoracions of salisbury use
 enprinted after the forme of this preface letter whiche
 ben wel and truly correct, late hym come to westmos-
 nester in to the almoner's shop at the red pale and he shal
 haue them good chepe . . .

Supplicatio stat cedula

CAXTON'S ADVERTISEMENT

From the Bodleian Library, Oxford (by permission).

enthusiastic over literature that every tradesman or even every noble who could command a few pounds hastened to purchase a book; but the mere fact that there were books for sale at a price lower than had been dreamed of before was a hope and an inspiration. It was easier to see books, to borrow them, to know about them; and little by little the knowledge filtered down through the various classes of people, until that one printing-press at Westminster had given new thoughts and new hopes to thousands.

Effect of
 printing
 on
 England.

New thoughts were coming from yet another source. Columbus had discovered what was supposed to be a

Foreign
discover-
ies.

shorter way to India; Vasco da Gama had rounded Africa; hundreds had gazed with

wide-open eyes upon the ship of the Cabots as it sailed from the English wharfs, and had followed



A PRINTING-PRESS OF ABOUT 1510

the "Grand Admiral" as he walked about the streets on his return, with all the glory of his discoveries about him. No one yet suspected that he had landed on the shores of a continent, but it was enough to hear the sailors' stories of strange plants and animals and people. Who could say what other marvels might be discovered?

Then came the end of the century. The homes of the masses of the people had made small addition of comfort; the noble treated the peasants who still lived on his land with perhaps small increase of respect; but for all that, the fifteenth century was marked by the increasing importance of the common people. They had shown their prowess in fighting; they held more firmly the money-bags of the kingdom; the ballads were theirs; the mystery plays were theirs; the new art of printing would benefit them rather than the wealthy nobles;

The people
and the
century.

the discovery of America would be to their gain, and it was already a stimulus to their intellect and their imagination. The sixteenth century was at hand, and men had a right to expect from it such a display of universal intellectual ability as England had never known.

CHAPTER V

SIXTEENTH CENTURY

RENAISSANCE AND EARLY ELIZABETHANS

Revival of learning in Europe. For three hundred years after the Norman Conquest, English writers were inclined to follow French models. Then came Chaucer, who, thoroughly English as he was, retold Italian stories, and was for some years greatly influenced by Italian literature. Italy was looked upon as the land of knowledge and light, and it was the custom for Englishmen who wished for better educational advantages than Oxford or Cambridge could afford, to go to that country to study in some one of the great universities.

Italian scholars were deeply interested in the writings of the Greeks and Romans. For many years they had been collecting ancient manuscripts, and in 1453 an event occurred which brought more of them to Italy than ever before. This event was the capture of Constantinople by the Turks. Constantinople had been the home of many Greek scholars, who now fled to Italy and brought the priceless manuscripts with them. Then there was study of the classics indeed. More and more students went from other countries to Italy. More and more copies of those manuscripts were carried to different parts of Europe. Among the ancient writings was

clear, concise prose, so carefully finished that every word seemed to be in its own proper niche; there were beautiful epics and much other poetry; there were essays, histories, biographies, and orations. Printing had come at just the right time to spread this new ancient knowledge over the Continent and England. All western Europe was aroused. People felt a new sense of boldness and freedom. They felt as if in the years gone by they had been slow and stupid. Now they became daring and fearless in their thought. They were eager to learn, to do, to understand. This movement was so marked that a name was given to it, the "Renaissance," or "New Birth," for people felt as if a new life had come to them. The Renaissance did not affect all countries alike. In Italy, the minds of men turned toward sculpture and painting; in Germany, to a bold investigation of religious teachings; in England, toward religion and literature.

A second influence that helped to arouse and inspire was the increased knowledge of the western world. Columbus died in 1506, but now that the way had been pointed out, one explorer after another crossed the western seas. South America was rounded and found to be a vast continent. North America was a group of islands, people thought; and men set out boldly to find a channel through them, to discover a "North-west Passage." Finally, Magellan's ship went around the world; and, behold, the world was much larger than had been supposed. Before the wonder of this had faded from the minds of men, there came another amazing discovery, for Copernicus declared, "The earth is not the centre of the

Increased
know-
ledge of
the
western
continent.

The teach-
ings of
Coperni-
cus.

universe; it is only a satellite of the sun." This was not accepted at once as truth, but the mere suggestion of it broadened men's thoughts. There was good reason why the world should begin to awake.

Henry VIII and the men about him. The influence of the Renaissance was not strongly felt in England before the time of Henry VIII, who came to the throne in 1509. Around him centred the literature of the early part of the century. Indeed, he himself attempted verse more than once. *Pastime with Good Company* is ascribed to him.

Pastime with good company
 I love, and shall until I die,
 Gruche who lust ¹ but none deny,
 So God be pleased, so live will I.
 For my pastance,²
 Hunt, sing, and dance,
 * My heart is sett;
 All goodly sport
 For my comfort,
 Who shall me let?³

Henry VIII was no great poet but he liked literature, and he liked to appear as its patron. **John Skelton**, about 1460-1529. His early tutor was one of the most prominent literary men of the day, the poet John Skelton. Skelton says:

The honor of Englund I lernyd to spelle
 In dygnite roialle that doth excelle.

Skelton was a fine classical scholar, and was perfectly able to write smooth, easily flowing verses, but he deliberately chose a rough, tumbling, headlong metre. He hated Cardinal Wolsey, and of him he wrote:

¹ grudge whoso will.

² pastime.

³ hinder.

So he dothe vndermynde,
And suche sleighthes dothe fynde,
That the Kynges mynde
By hym is subuerted,
And so streatly coarted
In credensynge his tales,
That all is but nutshales
That any other sayth :
He hath in him suche fayth.

Little wonder is it that Wolsey cordially returned the poet's dislike.

This harsh, scrambling metre Skelton knew how to adapt to more poetical thoughts. His best known poem is on "Phyllyp Sparowe," the pet bird of a young schoolgirl. It is of the mistress that he writes :

Soft and make no din,
For now I will begin
To have in remembrance
Her goodly dalliance
And her goodly pastaunce
So sad and so demure,
Behaving her so sure,
With words of pleasure
She would make to the lure
And any man convert
To give her his whole heart.

Skelton was a witty man, and many of the "good stories" of his day were ascribed to him. It is easy to see how Henry VIII would be influenced even as a child by the careless boldness, ^{Influence of Skelton.} poetical ability, and rollicking good nature of this man who was as brilliant as he was learned. No one knows how much of Henry's interest in poetry was due to the guidance of his tutor. Elizabeth closely resembled her father, and must have been influenced

by his love of literature. It may be that we owe some generous part of the literary glory of the Elizabethan age to the half-forgotten John Skelton with his "jagged" rhymes.

Sir Thomas More, 1478-1535. Another friend of Henry VIII was Sir Thomas More. Sir Thomas was



SIR THOMAS MORE, 1478-1535

so learned that when he was hardly more than a boy he could step upon the stage in the midst of a Latin play and make up a part for himself; and he was so witty that his improvised jests would set the audience into peals of laughter. A few years after Henry came to the throne More wrote the lives of Edward V and of Richard III, and this was the first English historical

work that was well arranged and written in a dignified style. The little book by which he is best known, though it is essentially English, was written in Latin, first published in Flanders, and had a Greek title, *Utopia*, or "nowhere." This describes a

country as More thought a country ought to be. In that marvellous land everything was valued according to its real worth. Gold was less useful than iron, therefore the chains of criminals were made of gold. Kings ruled, not for their own glory, but for the sake of their people. No one was idle, and no one was overworked. War was undertaken only for self-defence, or to aid other nations against invasion. This book is interesting not

only because it pictures what so brilliant a man as Sir Thomas More thought a country should be, but because it proves that people were thinking with a boldness and freedom that would not be suppressed. In many respects More proved to be a true prophet, for some of the laws that he suggested became long ago a part of the British constitution.

Religious questioning. In Utopia every man was allowed to follow whatever religion he thought right. This question of religion, whether to obey the church implicitly or to decide matters of faith for one's self, was dividing Germany into two parties, and was arousing a vast amount of thought and discussion in England. Many held firmly to the old faith; but many others were inclined to investigate the teachings of the church, and to wish to compare them with the words of the Bible. English had changed greatly since Wyclif's day, and an English scholar named William Tyndale was determined that the Bible should be given to the people in the language of their own time. "If God spare my life," he said to a clergyman who opposed him, "ere many years I will cause a boy that driveth the plough shall know more of the Scripture than thou dost." There was "no room" in England to make his translation, as he said, and therefore Tyndale went to Germany, and in 1525 printed with the utmost secrecy an English version of the *New Testament*. Some English merchants paid for the printing, and the books found their way all over the country in spite of the King's opposition. The *Old Testament* was afterward translated under Tyndale's direction and partly by Tyndale himself.

William
Tyndale.
1485 ?-
1536.

Tyndale's
translation of the
New
Testament.
1525.

Not more than two years after Tyndale's *New Testament* was printed, Henry became bent upon securing a divorce from his wife, but the pope refused. Then Henry declared that he himself was the head of the church in England. Parliament was submissive, the English clergy were submissive, and in 1534 the Church of England separated from the Church of Rome. Whoever believed that the authority of the pope was superior to that of the King was declared a traitor. Prominent men were not suffered to hold their own opinions in quiet; and among those who were dragged forward and compelled to say under oath whether they accepted Henry as the head of their church was Sir Thomas More. He was too honourable and truthful to assent to what he did not believe; and King Henry, who had claimed to feel great admiration and affection for him, straightway gave the order that he should be executed. Tyndale, too, Henry had pursued even after his withdrawal to the Continent. Such was the treatment that this patron of literature bestowed upon two of the three or four best writers of English prose that lived during his reign.

Separation of
Church of
England
from
Church of
Rome.
1534.

Death of
Sir
Thomas
More.

Sir Thomas Wyatt, about 1503-1542, and Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, about 1517-1547. At King Henry's court there were two men in whom every one who met them was interested. The elder was Sir Thomas Wyatt. He was a learned man, he spoke several languages, he was a skilful diplomatist and statesman. He was also a man of most charming manners, and was exceedingly handsome. The younger was the Earl of Surrey. These two men were warm friends, and they were both interested in

poetry. Both knew well the Greek and Latin and Italian literatures; and they appreciated not only the freedom of thought and fancy brought in by the Renaissance, but also the carefulness with which the Italian poetry as well as the classical was written. Why should not that same carefulness, that same love for not only saying a good thing but saying it in the best way, be followed in English, they questioned. They were specially pleased with the Italian sonnet, a form of verse that needs the greatest care ^{the} and accuracy of arrangement in its rhymes, ^{sonnet.} the number of lines and of accents, the ending of the octave, the first eight lines, its connexion with the sestet, the last six, and the summing up of the thought at the end.¹ They brought to England, not the glow and brilliancy of the Renaissance, but the realization that literary composition had definite requirements, that the thought was not enough, but that the form in which the thought was presented was also of importance.

Surrey introduced another form of verse to the English, blank verse, or, as the Italians called it, "free verse." It was in this style that he trans- ^{Surrey's}lated two books of the *Æneid*, smoothly ^{Æneid,} and easily, and with a sincere appreciation ^{published} not only of the classical beauty of form, but of the beauty of thought and description. 1557.

These two men could not be long among Henry's courtiers without feeling both his favour and his disfavour. Wyatt was imprisoned on some trivial charge more than once, and Surrey was beheaded on a groundless accusation of treason. For years their

¹ For a sonnet of Sir Philip Sidney's, see page 111. For one of Milton's, see page 160.

writings were passed from one to another in manuscript, for it would have been thought great lack of taste and delicacy to allow one's poems to be printed; and not until ten years after Surrey's death did they come out in print. The book in which they appeared is known as *Tottel's Miscellany*, a collection of short poems which was published in 1557. This book is interesting, but it is rarely pleasant reading. It has not a touch of humour. The poets wrote of the wretchedness and mutability of the world. The love-poems were especially doleful. The lover complains—"complains" is the favourite word—of his lady's absence; he laments "how impossible it is to find quiet" in his love. Yet even on so lugubrious a subject as "The lover complaineth the unkindness of his love," Wyatt is beautiful and graceful. He writes:

My lute, awake! perform the last
Labour that thou and I shall waste;
And end that I have now begun:
And when this song is sung and past,
My lute, be still, for I have done.

Masques and Interludes. While Skelton was preparing the way for satire, while Tyndale and Sir Thomas More were writing excellent prose, while Wyatt and Surrey were teaching English poets not only how to write sonnets and blank verse, but also that the form of a poem should be as carefully watched as the outline and colouring of a picture, the drama was not forgotten. Mystery and morality plays still flourished, but these were not sufficiently entertaining for Henry VIII and his merry court. Two kinds of plays came into great favour, the masques and the interludes. Masques were

at first only dumb shows, or pantomimes. In one of them a mock castle was seen from whose windows six ladies in gorgeous raiment looked forth. The king and five knights in even more brilliant attire appeared and besieged the castle. When the ladies could no longer resist, they came down, flung open the gates, and joined their besiegers in a merry dance. At the close of the dance, each maiden led her knight into the castle, which was then drawn swiftly out of sight. There is little to tell about a masque; but with the opportunity to display gracefulness and beauty and magnificence and skill in the use of arms, there must have been enough to see to amuse even the merry young King.

The second kind of entertainment that was enjoyed by king and nobles was the interludes which were originally acted between the courses of feasts ^{Inter-} or at festivals. They are a little like real ^{ludes.} plays because they are in dialogue, and they are a little like moralities because they sometimes introduce the Vice and other abstract characters. Here the resemblance to the morality ends, for they are often full of wild merriment and jest. The one best known is *The Foure P's: a very Mery Enterlude of a Palmer, a Pardoner, a Potecary, and a Pedlar*. Each one tells such big stories of what he has seen and done that finally the pedlar declares that they are all liars, and that he will give the palm to the one who can tell the biggest lie. Probably the audience listened with roars of laughter as one attempt followed another. The dialogue was rough and sometimes coarse, but it was easy and natural, and it was preparing the way for the graceful wit and the flowing speech of the Elizabethan stage. John Heywood was the author

of *The Foure P's*. Sir Thomas More had introduced John Hey him to the King, and he remained in the wood, d'ee royal favour long after More had been put about 1580. to death, rising from some humble position in which he served his sovereign for eightpence a day to that of special provider of amusements for the court.

The first English comedy, *Ralph Roister Doister*, probably 1552 or 1553. Henry VIII died in 1547, and during the six years that the boy Edward VI was on the throne, the first English comedy made its appearance. English scholars were still deeply interested in the classics, and the comedies of Plautus had been played at court many years before. This first English comedy was written by the headmaster of Eton, a clergyman named Nicholas Udall. He was the author of some dignified translations from the Latin, and his play, *Ralph Roister Doister*, is modelled on the plays of Plautus. The hero, Ralph himself, is a conceited simpleton, upon whom Merrygreek, a hanger-on, plays tricks without number. Ralph is bent upon marrying "a widow worth a thousand pound," and here Merrygreek plays his worst prank. A scrivener has written a love-letter for Ralph, part of which reads :

Yf ye will be my wife,
Ye shall be assured for the time of my life,
I wyll keep you right well : from good raiment and fare
Ye shall not be kept : but in sorrowe and care
Ye shall in no wyse liue : at your owne libertie,
Doe and say what ye lust : ye shall neuer please me
But when ye are merrie : I will bee all sadde
When ye are sorie : I wyll be very gladde
When ye seek your heartes ease : I will be vnkinde
At no time. In me shall ye muche gentlenesse finde.

Merrygreek reads this letter to the widow, and

changes the punctuation so as to give it exactly the opposite meaning and arouse the wrath of Dame Custance. It hardly seems possible that instead of such laboured jesting as this we shall have in less than fifty years the light, witty merriment of Shakespeare's Portia; but the days of Queen Elizabeth were at hand, and in that marvellous time all things came to pass.

The first English tragedy, Gorboduc, 1561. In 1558, Queen Elizabeth came to the throne. There was much rejoicing on the part of the nation, and yet not all was happiness and harmony in England. The country was poor; it had few if any friends; Catholics and Protestants quarrelled bitterly; supporters of Elizabeth and supporters of Mary Stuart were sometimes almost at swords' points. It was fitting that the first significant literary work of Elizabeth's reign should owe its origin to a realization of the condition of affairs. This work was a drama, the first English tragedy. Its authors were Thomas Sackville and Thomas Norton, two young men of the Inner Temple. In 1561, the members of the Inner Temple were to have a grand Christmas celebration twelve days long, and these two young men determined to write a play to show what disasters might befall a disunited nation. This play was called at first *Gorboduc*, later *Ferrex and Porrex*. It was modelled upon the work of the Latin author, Seneca, who was much read in England, but the plot was based upon an old British legend of a kingdom's discord.

King Gorboduc divides his kingdom between his two sons, Porrex and Ferrex. Porrex slays his brother. Their mother kills Porrex. The people rise and kill

Thomas
Sackville,
1536-
1608.

Thomas
Norton,
1532-
1584.

both *Gorboduc* and the queen, and the story ends with a long speech on the dangers of such a situation. So many horrors are piled upon horrors that the play seems like a burlesque, but it was no burlesque in the days of its first appearance. Learned councillors and other great folk of the kingdom listened with the utmost seriousness, and the queen sent a command that it should be repeated at court.

Gorboduc is in several ways quite different from *Ralph Roister Doister*. In the first place, it is con-

Difference between *Gorboduc* and *Ralph Roister Doister*. nected with the masques in that it has pantomime, for there is a "dumb show" before each act, foreshadowing what is to come; for instance before the division of the kingdom

between the two sons, the fable is shown of the bundle of sticks which could not be broken until they were separated. Before the murder of Ferrex, a band of mourners clad in black walk solemnly across the stage three times. At the end of each act a "Chorus," that is, a single actor in a long black robe, appears and moralizes on the events of the act. Again, *Ralph Roister Doister* was written in rhyming couplets, while the new tragedy was written in the blank verse which Surrey had introduced from Italy. It was not very agreeable blank verse, however, as it came from the pens of the two young Templars, for there is a pause at the end of almost every line, and the monotony is somewhat tiresome; for instance:

Within one land one single rule is best;
Divided reigns do make divided hearts:
But peace preserves the country and the prince.

Increasing strength of England. One reason for the popularity of *Gorboduc* was that Englishmen were beginning to realize more strongly than ever before

that the country was theirs. The Queen loved her land and her subjects, and the people of England were quick to feel the new sense of harmony between the ruler and the ruled. England became rapidly stronger. Her sea-captains sailed fearlessly into the Arctic and Pacific Oceans. More than this, they sailed straight into Spanish harbours and burned the merchant vessels lying at anchor; and they lay in wait for Spanish ships coming from the New World, captured them, and bore their vast treasure of gold and silver back to England. There was no enemy to guard against except Spain, and even toward Spain England grew more and more fearless.

All this audacious freedom was reflected in the literature of the time, especially in the boldness with which English writers attempted anything ^{Literary} and everything. This boldness was some- ^{boldness.} thing entirely new in religious writings. Every middle-aged man in England could remember three religious revolutions, three times within the space of less than a quarter of a century when men who had not changed their faith to agree with that of their sovereign had been in danger of death at the stake. Religious poems had been careful and timid, but now they became frank and cheerful. Great numbers of ballads were written, but few of them were as good as the old ones; for their chief object now was to tell of some recent event, that is, to be newspapers rather than poems. Of translations there seemed no end, translations not only from the Greek and Latin, but also from the Italian, for Italy was still the land of culture and light. The Celtic love for stories could now be satisfied, for there were tales and romances from Italy, from the wonder-book of early English

history, and even from the legends of Spain. The stories told by returning sea-captains were not to be scorned, throbbing with life as they were, glowing with pictures of the strange new world, and thrilling with wild encounters on the sea.

The early Elizabethan drama. It was not enough to hear stories told. In that age of action, people must see things done; and the drama flourished more and more. Theatres were built, the first to deserve the name, and intended specially for stage plays, in 1576. The queen was very fond of the drama, and this in itself was a great encouragement, for Elizabeth was England, and England was Elizabeth. All kinds of dramas flourished. The mystery plays were not yet given up; moralities, comedies, tragedies, and all sorts of mongrel dramas appeared. The metre employed was in quite as uncertain a state; for these bold writers of plays were ready to try everything. Sometimes they imitated the blank verse of *Gorboduc*; sometimes they followed such metreless metre as these lines from *Ralph Roister Doister*:

Ye may not speake with a faint heart to Custance,
But with a lusty breast and countenance.

Sometimes lines of seven accents were tried, sometimes lines of five, sometimes of ten, and sometimes there was no attempt at metre, the play being written in prose; but the foundations of the great period of English poetry that was so soon to follow were being laid, and were being laid well and truly.

CHAPTER VI

THE LATER ELIZABETHANS

THE years rolled on rapidly. The 'sixties were past, the 'seventies were nearly gone. In 1579, the special need of English literature was form. Both ^{The need} prose and poetry needed the finish and care- ^{of form.} fulness of which Wyatt and Surrey had been the apostles. In 1579 and 1580, three new writers arose, who laid before the lovers of poetry fresh and winning examples of what might be accomplished by poetic thought united with careful form. These three writers were John Lyly, Edmund Spenser, and Sir Philip Sidney.

John Lyly, 1554 ?-1606. Hardly anything is known of John Lyly before 1579 save that he was a university man and attached to the court. His first book, *Euphues*, that is, "the well endowed by nature," was long looked upon as a model for polite conversation, and affected the style of writing of all ^{Euphues,} literary England for many years. It has a ^{1579.} slender thread of story whereon are hung various moral and educational ideas. So far there is nothing unusual in it. Its peculiarity lay in its style. Lyly uses the balanced sentence to excess, stiffens it with alliteration, and loads it down with similes, a large proportion of them drawn from a half-fabulous natural history. One of his sentences is :

If Trauailers in this our age were . . . as willing to reape profit by their paines, as they are to endure perill for their pleasure, they would either prefer their own soyle before a straunge Land or good counsell before their owne conceyte.

Another sentence declares :

As the Egle at euery flight looseth a fether, which maketh hir bald in hir age : so the trauailer in euery country looseth some fleece, which maketh him a begger in his youth.

This affected manner of talking and writing fell in with the whim of the age, and was soon the height of the fashion. Foolish and unnatural as it seems, it brought to English prose precisely what that prose needed, that is, a plan for each sentence. Far too many writers, not only in King Alfred's time but long afterward, had plunged into their sentences with the utmost audacity, trusting to luck to bring them out ; but whoever wrote in euphuistic fashion was obliged to plan his sentences and choose his words.

Euphuism was only the chief of the little affectations of style that influenced the literature of Elizabethan times. Throughout the rest of the century, and far into the next, one poetic disguise after another was welcomed.

Edmund Spenser, 1552 ?-1599. One of the most popular of these disguises was the pastoral, wherein the characters are spoken of as shepherds and shepherdesses. They have the sheep and the crook, but in their thought they are anything but simple shepherds. The first of these pastorals was written by Edmund Spenser, and is called *The Shepherd's Calendar*. Spenser was a London boy, who began to write poetry in his school-days, but almost nothing is known of him

Advantages of euphuism.

Pastorals.

The Shepherd's Calendar.
1579.

until he wrote this poem. Before it was quite completed, he met one of the most interesting young men of the age, Sir Philip Sidney, and was invited to his home at Penshurst. From the first the two young men were very congenial. Tradition says they spent day after day under the beech-trees, reading the works of the old Greek philosophers and talking of poetry. When *The Shepherd's Calendar* was published, it was dedicated to Sidney,

To him that is the president
Of noblesse and of chevalree.

The *Calendar* is a collection of poems, one for each month of the year. They are not at all alike. One, of course, was in praise of the queen; but there were fables, satires, and allegory, besides the five poems that pertain strictly to country life. For February there is a story of a "bragging brere," or brier rose, who takes it upon him to scold a grand old oak for being in his way, and appeals to the husbandmen to cut it down, for he says it is

Hindering with his shade my lovely light,
And robbing me of the swete sonnes sight.

The oak is hewn down; but when winter is come, the brere, too, meets his death, for now he has not the shelter and support of the oak that he scorned. For August there is a merry little roundelay about the meeting of shepherd "Willie" with shepherdess "Perigot." So it is that Spenser describes his heroine:

Well decked in a focke of gray,
Hey ho gray is greete,
And in a kirtle of greene say,
The greene is for maidens meete.

A chapelet on her head she wore,
 Hey ho chapelet,
 O! sweete violets therein was store,
 She sweeter than the violet.
 My sheep did leave theyr wonted foode,
 Hey ho seely sheepe,
 And gazed on her, as they were wood,¹
 Woode as he, that did them keepe.

These poems of Spenser's were so much better than any others written since Chaucer's day that all the lovers of poetry were interested, and Spenser was often spoken of as the "new poet." He was without means, and by influence of



EDMUND SPENSER,
 1552?-1599

By permission of the Rev. S. Baring
 Gould

his friends a government position was obtained for him in Ireland. A few months before he went on board the vessel that was to bear him across the Irish Sea, he wrote to an old school friend to return a little package of manuscript which had been lent him to read, and "whyche I pray you heartily send me with al expedition," he said. The little package was to return to England some ten years later, but much was to hap-

pen in the literary world before that came to pass.

In the first place, pastorals became so much the fashion that there was even a re-writing of old poems, so that "youths and maidens" might appear as "swains and nymphs" or

¹ mad.

as "shepherds and shepherdesses." *Euphues* was not a pastoral, but its smoothness and careful attention to sound were in full accord with this mode of writing. Soon after Spenser had gone to Ireland, his friend, Sir Philip Sidney, wrote a book that was almost equally smooth. It was written merely for amusement and to please the Countess of Pembroke, his favourite sister, but for more than three hundred years it has pleased almost every one who has read it.

Sir Philip Sidney, 1554-1586. Sir Philip belonged to a noble family; he received every advantage of education and travel; he was of so singularly sweet a nature and so brilliant an intellect that he was loved and admired by every one who knew him. Yet he was not at all spoiled, he felt only the more eager to prove himself worthy of this love and admiration. When only twenty-three, he was sent to Prague as the ambassador of his country. He was even thought to be a fit candidate for the throne of Poland, but here Queen Elizabeth said no. "I will not brook the loss of the jewel of my dominions," declared this autocratic sovereign.

Sir Philip's book was named *Arcadia*, or as it was usually called, *The Countess of Pembroke's Arcadia*. It is a kind of pastoral romance, wherein young men and maidens wander about in a beautiful forest. They fall in love with one another; they kill lions; they carry on war with the Helots of Greece; they are taken by pirates and have encounters with bears; and all this occurs in a fabulous country, a wilderness of *færie*. The very story is a wilderness. There is no special plot, and the characters are not drawn like real men and

Arcadia,
written
about
1578-80.

women. But why should they be so drawn? They are half enchanted wanderers roaming on happily through a magical forest. Page after page Sidney wrote, never stopping for revision, rambling on wherever his fancy led; with the loved sister beside him slipping away each leaf, as his pen traced the bottom line, to see what had come next in the fascinating



SIR PHILIP SIDNEY,
1554-1586

tale of *faerie*. Even the sound of the words is charming. The sentences are often long, but clear and graceful and musical. There is more than mere pleasantness of sound in the *Arcadia*, however, for it is full of charming bits of description, and of true and noble thoughts. Here is the merry little shepherd boy, "piping as though he should never grow old."

Here is "a place made happy by her treading." Here, too, "They laid them down by the

murmuring music of certain waters." It is but a picture of himself when Sidney writes, "They are never alone that are accompanied with noble thoughts," and "Keep yourself in heart with joyfulness." One of his friends said long after the author's death that Sidney had intended to rewrite his book and make it into an English romance with King Arthur for its hero; but it is so graceful and charming in its present form that everyone can be grateful that Sidney did not recast it after all.

The *Arcadia* was handed about in manuscript from one friend to another. Wherever it was read, it was

praised and imitated, but it was not printed till 1590, and then only in part, for eight more years had to elapse before it all appeared as we have it now. Printing was for common folk, not for nobles and courtiers; and the lovers of poetry were in the habit of making manuscript books of their favourite poems. Before the end of the century, however, some of these books of poems did come to the printing-^{The Miscellanies.} press. As if to console them for their humiliation, most high-sounding titles were given them, and we have *The Paradise of Dainty Devices*, Nicholas Breton's *Bower of Delights*, *The Phoenix's Nest*, *England's Helicon*, etc.

Later Elizabethan drama. It was the time of the pastoral, but hundreds of sonnets were being written and passed about in manuscript. Besides this, the drama was almost ready to burst forth with a magnificence of which no one could have dreamed who had seen only the crude attempts of less than half a century earlier. Scores of plays had been written. They were good plays, too, wonderfully far in advance of the previous attempts. Many of them were well worth acting, and are well worth reading to-day; even though the writers had not yet adopted a standard verse, and had not mastered the art of making their characters *live*, that is, of making a character show just such changes at the end of the play as a human being would show if he had been through such experiences as those delineated. This was the greatest lack in these dramas. Their greatest beauty lay in the little songs scattered through the scenes. In the Elizabethan days everybody loved music and everybody sang, even servants were often chosen with an ear to their voices, that they might be

able to join in a glee or a catch. The words of the songs must be musical; but the Elizabethans demanded even more than this. Poetry was plentiful, and the songs must be real poetry. Therefore it was that such dainty little things appeared as *Apelles' Song*:

Apelles' Song. Cupid and my Campaspe played
At cards for kisses,—Cupid paid;
He stakes his quiver, bow and arrows,
His mother's doves and team of sparrows:
Loses them too; then down he throws
The coral of his lip, the rose
Growing on's cheek (but none knows how);
With these the crystal of his brow,
And then the dimple of his chin:
All these did my Campaspe win.
At last he set her both his eyes;
She won, and Cupid blind did rise.

O Love, has she done this to thee?

What shall, alas! become of me?

This song is in Lyly's play of *Alexander and Campaspe*, for the famous euphuist wrote a handful of plays which were presented before the Queen. He wrote in prose, but some makers of plays employed rhyme, some blank verse, and some a mingling of all three. There was great need of a standard verse suited to the requirements of the drama, a line not so short as to suggest doggerel, and not so long as to be cumbersome and unwieldy. Blank verse was perhaps slowly gaining ground, but before it could be generally accepted as the most fitting mode of dramatic expression, some writer must use it so skilfully as to show its power, its music, and its adaptability.

Christopher Marlowe, 1564-1593. Such a writer was Christopher, or "Kit," Marlowe, one of the "uni-

versity wits," as one group of playwrights was called, because nearly all of them had been connected with one or the other of the great universities. He is thought to have lived in somewhat bohemian fashion, but little is certainly known of his life save that he took his degree at Cambridge. His *Tamburlaine* was acted in 1587 or 1588. Five years later, Marlowe died; but in those five years he wrote at least three plays, the *Jew of Malta*, the *Tragical History of Doctor Faustus*, and *Edward II*, which showed what magnificent use could be made of blank verse.

In his prologue to *Tamburlaine* he promises to lead his audience "from jiggling veins of rhyming mother wits," and he keeps his promise nobly. The Scythian hero, Tamburlaine, is a shepherd who becomes the conqueror of sovereigns. One scene was the laughing-stock of the time, that in which Tamburlaine enters, drawn in his chariot by two captive kings with bits in their mouths. Marlowe had no sense of humour to keep him from such an absurdity; his mission was to give the poets some idea of what might be done with blank verse; and those who laughed loudest listened with admiration to such lines as these:

Our souls, whose faculties can comprehend
The wondrous architecture of the world,
And measure every wandering planet's course,
Still climbing after knowledge infinite,
And always moving as the restless spheres,
Will us to wear ourselves, and never rest,
Until we reach the ripest fruit of all,
That perfect bliss and sole felicity,
The sweet fruition of an earthly crown.

Remembering that the speaker is Tamburlaine, the heathen shepherd, to whom a throne is the loftiest

glory that imagination can reach, there is no bathos in the closing line. The only fault is in the use of the word "earthly."

Marlowe knew well how to use proper names in his verse; and Queen Elizabeth, with her love of music and her equal love of the magnificence of the royal estate, must have enjoyed:

And ride in triumph through Persepolis?
Is it not brave to be a king, Techelles?
Usumcasene and Theridamas,
Is it not passing brave to be a king,
And ride in triumph through Persepolis?

Marlowe could write lightly and gracefully, as in his "Come live with me and be my love." Then he is charming, but it is his power rather than his grace that lingers in the mind. More than once there are such lines as,

Weep not for Mortimer,
That scorns the world, and, as a traveller,
Goes to discover countries yet unknown,—

lines that might well have come from the pen of Shakespeare. These are from the closing scene of *Edward II*, Marlowe's last and finest play.

Events from 1580 to 1590. So the years passed in England from 1580 to 1590, but one poet, Spenser, was shut away from the literary life of his countrymen, which was becoming every day more glorious. A castle and a vast tract of land in Ireland had been given him, and there he dwelt and wrote; but all the time he felt like a prisoner, and he called his Irish home "that waste where I was quite forgot." When he came from Ireland in 1589 or 1590 to pay a visit to England, he found several changes. Mary Queen of Scots had been beheaded, and the most timid

Protestant no longer feared revolution and a Roman Catholic sovereign. The Spanish Armada had been conquered by the bravery of English captains and the tempests of the heavens; England was mistress of the seas, and her bold mariners were free to go where they would. The thoughts of many were turning toward the New World, and Sir Walter Raleigh had even attempted to found a colony across the seas. One note of sadness mingled with the joy of the nation. Sir Philip Sidney was dead, and was mourned by a whole kingdom. The bravery with which he met the enemy in the fatal battle of Zutphen, the self-forgetful courtesy which he refused, until another should have drunk, the water that would have eased his suffering, the gentle patience with which he bore the long weeks of agony before the coming of the end,—all this touched the English heart as it had never before been touched. So enduring was the love which he inspired that Fulke Greville, one of his boyhood companions, who outlived him by twenty-two years, asked that on his own tomb might be written, "Servant to Queen Elizabeth, Councillor to King James, and Friend to Sir Philip Sidney." Sidney requested that his *Arcadia* should be destroyed, but his sister could not bear to fulfil such a wish, and in 1590, while Spenser was in England, a good portion of it was printed.

The Faerie Queene. Spenser brought with him from Ireland the little package that he had carried away, now grown much larger. Sir Walter Raleigh had visited him, and as they sat under the alders by the river, Spenser had read aloud the first three books of the *Faerie Queene*,

Death of
Sir Philip
Sidney.

Books I-
III, 1590.
Books IV-
VI, 1596.

for these were in the precious little package. They were published in 1590. The poem begins:

A gentle Knight was pricking on the plaine,
Ycladd in mightie armes and silver shielde,
Wherein old dints of deepe woundes did remaine,
The cruell markes of many a bloody felde :
Yet armes till that time did he never wield :
His angry steede did chide his foming bitt,
As much disdayning to the curbe to yield :
Full iolly knight he seemd, and faire did sitt,
As one for knightly giusts and fierce encounters fitt.

This "gentle knight" represented Holiness, who was riding forth into the world to subdue Heresy. Spenser planned to write twelve books, each of which was to celebrate the victory of some virtue over its contrary vice. At the end of the twelfth book the knights were to return to the land of Faerie. King Arthur was then to represent the embodiment of all these virtues, and he was to wed the Queen of Faerie, who was the Glory of God. Together with this was a very material allegory, if it may be so called, in which Elizabeth is the Queen of Faerie, Mary of Scotland is Error, etc. So far even the double allegory is reasonably clear; but as the poem goes on, it wanders away and away, and is so mingled with other allegories and changes of characters that it is only with great difficulty that one can trace a connected story through even the six books that were written of the twelve that Spenser planned.

Tracing the story is a small matter, however. One need not read an imaginative poem with a biographical dictionary and a gazetteer. The allegory of the struggle of evil with good is beautiful; but one need not trouble himself about the allegory. Read

the poem simply for its exquisite pictures, its wonderfully rich and varied imagery, and the ever-changing music of its verse, and you will share in some degree the pleasure which for over three hundred years Spenser has given to all true lovers of poetry.

The decade of the sonnet, 1590-1600. From 1590 to 1600 the sonnet was the prevailing form of the lyric. Sonnets were written in sequences, as they were called, that is, in groups, each group generally telling the story of the author's love for some lady fair who was either real or imaginary. Spenser wrote beautiful, musical sonnets, but Sidney's *Astrophel and Stella*, a sequence which was not published till 1591, gives one such a feeling that it *must* be sincere that to read it seems almost like stealing glances at his paper as he wrote. One of his best sonnets is :

With how sad steps, O Moon, thou climb'st the skies !
 How silently, and with how wan a face !
 What, may it be that even in heavenly place
 That busy archer his sharp arrows tries !
 Sure, if that long-with-love-acquainted eyes
 Can judge of love, thou feel'st a lover's case,
 I read it in thy looks ; thy languisht grace,
 To me, that feel the like, thy state descries :
 Then, even of fellowship, O Moon, tell me,
 Is constant love deem'd there but want of wit ?
 Are beauties there as proud as here they be ?
 Do they above love to be lov'd, and yet
 Those lovers scorn whom that love doth possess ?
 Do they call virtue there ungratefulness ?

Richard Hooker, 1554-1600. During this decade an important piece of prose was written by a clergyman named Richard Hooker. He was a man of much learning, but so shy that when he was lecturing

at Oxford he could hardly look his students in the face. Even his shyness could not hide his merits, and he was appointed to a prominent position in London. It was not long, however, before he wrote an earnest appeal to the archbishop to give him instead some humble village parish. London was full of controversies, sometimes very bitter ones, between the Church of England and the Puritans. Hooker was far too gentle to meet disagreement and discord, but in his later and more quiet home he produced a clear, strong book called the *Ecclesiastical Polity*, which defended the position of the church, giving the reasons why he believed it to have the right to claim men's obedience. Prose in plenty had been written for some special purpose, but this was something more than a mere putting of words together to express a thought; it was not only an argument, it was literature, and even those who were not interested in its subject read it for the grave harmony of its style and the dignity of its phrasing.

William Shakespeare, 1564-1616. It was in this same decade that the full glory of the drama was to burst forth. In 1564, the year of Marlowe's birth, a child was born in the town of Stratford on the river Avon who was to become the greatest of poets. His father, John Shakespeare, was a well-to-do man, and held various offices in the town. This boy, William, grew up much as did other boys of the place. He went to school, studied Latin and possibly a little Greek. Coventry was near, and there mystery plays were performed. Kenilworth Castle was only fifteen miles away; and when Shakespeare was eleven years old, Queen Elizabeth was its guest. No bright boy would let such chances go by to see a mystery play

or to have a glimpse of his country's queen and the entertainments given in her honour. In 1568, a company of London actors came to Stratford. John Shakespeare as bailiff gave them a formal welcome to the town; and it is probable that among the earliest memories of his son were the sound of their drums and trumpets, the beating of hoofs, and the sight of banners and riders, of gorgeous costumes flashing in the sun, and gaily caparisoned horses prancing down the street to the market-place.

More than a score of times the prancing steeds and their riders visited Stratford; and the country boy, living quietly beside the Avon, must have had many thoughts of the great world of London that was the home of those fascinating cavalcades. He would not have been a real boy if he had not determined to see that marvellous city before many years should pass.

Not long after the festivities of Kenilworth, John Shakespeare began to be less successful in his business affairs. Thirteen or fourteen was not an early age for a boy to be taken from school who did not intend to go to the university; and it is probable that the boy William left school at that age and began to earn his own living. For some years from that time the only thing known of him is that he often crossed the fields by a narrow lane that led to Shottery and the cottage of Anne Hathaway, and that before he was nineteen she became his wife. Somewhere about 1586, this young man in his early twenties, with no trade, with himself and wife and three children to support, with only dreams and courage and genius for capital, made his way to London, possibly on horseback, but more probably on foot. 1586 was the year of Sidney's death. There could hardly be a greater inspiration

toward honour and uprightness for a young man on his first visit to London than to see the whole city grieving for the death of one but ten years older than



SHAKESPEARE'S BIRTHPLACE, STRATFORD-ON-AVON.

himself simply because he whom they had lost was pure, true, noble, and a poet.

Just what Shakespeare did during his first few years in London is not known, but he must have been connected in some way with the theatre and have won the confidence of those in control, for as early as 1588 he was trusted to "retouch" at least one play. This retouching was regarded as perfectly allowable. There was no copyright law, and as soon as a play had been printed, any theatre had a right to use it, and any author had a right to alter it as he chose. Two years later, the

Shake-
speare in
London

unknown young man from the country had made a place for himself, and probably in 1591 the year after Spenser had brought the first part of the *Love's Labour's Lost* to London, Shakespeare's merry little comedy, *Love's Labour's Lost*, 1591.

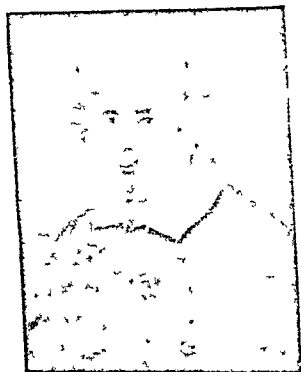
was acted. This play does not reach the heights of tragedy, of course, or even of his later comedies, but it is freely and lightly drawn; it is full of fun and frolic, and fairly sparkles with witty repartee. Shakespeare had caught the fashion of euphuism, and he made fun of it so merrily that its greatest devotees must have been amused.

Play followed play: comedy, tragedy, history. It was no idle life that he led, for the writing of five or six plays is generally ascribed to the years 1591-1593; and it must be remembered, too, that he was actor as well as author. It was in 1592 that the dramatist Chettle wrote of his excellent acting, and said, moreover, that he had heard of his uprightness of dealing and his grace in writing. Shakespeare was no longer an unknown actor. He was recognized as a successful playwright, and also as a poet, for his *Venus and Adonis* and *Lucrece* had won a vast amount of admiration.

"The mellifluous and honey-tongued Shakespeare," one of the critics called him, and spoke with praise of his "sugred sonnets" that were passed about among his private friends.

Historical Plays. After some merry, sparkling comedies, such as *A Midsummer Night's Dream* and *The Comedy of Errors*, there came a time when the poet seemed fascinated by the history of his own land. In writing historical drama Shakespeare was never a student-author; Elizabethan life moved too rapidly

for much searching of old manuscripts and records. Shakespeare's special power as a dramatist of history lay in his sympathetic imagination by which he understood the men of by gone days. He read their motives,



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

he pictured them as he could imagine himself to have been in their circumstances and with their qualities ; and more than once his interpretation of some historical character, opposed as it was to the common belief of his time, has been proved by later investigation to be correct.

Then came *The Merchant of Venice* and a group of comedies, some of which have touches of boisterous

rant, while some are happy, romantic, and charmingly graceful. In *The Merchant of Venice* perhaps quite as much as in any other play, Shakespeare shows his power to make us hold a character in the balance. Shylock is cruel and miserly, but we cannot help seeing with a touch of sympathy that he is oppressed and lonely ; Bassanio is a careless young spendthrift, but so boyish and so frank that we forget to be severe ; Portia is perfectly conscious of the value of her wealth and her beauty, but at love's command she is ready to drop both lightly into the hands of Bassanio.

The Mer-
chant of
Venice.
1594 ?

Shakespeare's writing extended over a space of about twenty years, half of which time belonged to the sixteenth century and half to the seventeenth. If he had died in 1600, we should think of him as a

dramatist of great skill in writing comedy, whether refined and merry or rough and somewhat boisterous, and in writing historical plays presenting the history of his own country; but, save for some hint that *Romco and Juliet* might give, we should have no idea of his unrivalled power in writing tragedies. Those as well as his deeper comedies belonged to the following century.

CHAPTER VII

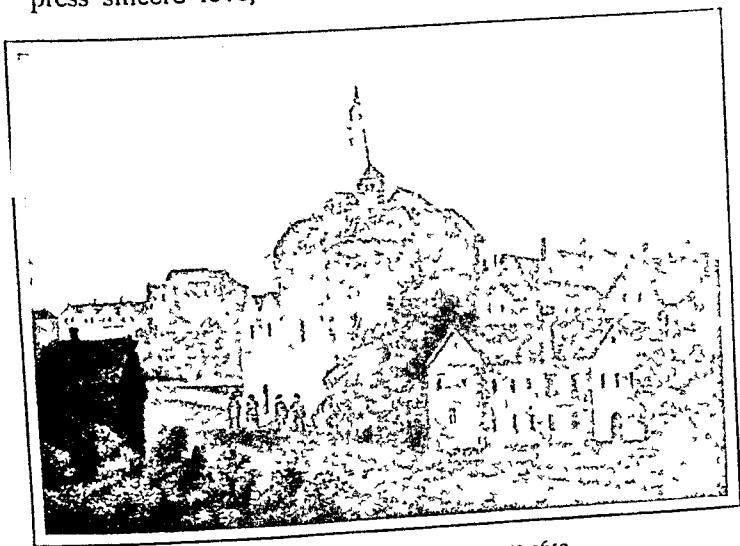
SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

PURITANS AND CAVALIERS I

Shakespeare in the Seventeenth Century. In 1603 Queen Elizabeth died and James of Scotland became the sovereign of England. The inspiration of the age of Elizabeth lingered for some years after her death, and the work of Shakespeare, its greatest glory, extended far into the reign of James. His genius broadened and deepened, and he gave to the new century his deeper comedies and a superb group of tragedies, *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, and others. His plays grow more intense, more powerful. Sometimes he uses bitter irony. Stern retribution is visited upon both weak and wicked. There is a touch of gloom. Magnificent as these dramas are, it is good to come away from them to the ripple of the sea, to the breeze of the meadow land, to his last group of plays, the joyous and beautiful romantic dramas, such as the *Winter's Tale*, *Cymbeline*, and, last of all, it may be, *The Tempest*, that marvellous production in which a child may find a fairy tale, a philosopher suggestion and mystery and that "solemn vision" of life that comes in the midst of the wonders of the magic island.

The sonnets. When Shakespeare's sonnets were written and to whom they were written is not known. If the whole aim of their author had been to puzzle

his readers, he could not have succeeded better. Some seem to have been written to a man, others to a woman. Some are exquisitely beautiful, some are fairly rollicking in boyish mischievousness. Some express sincere love, some are apparently trying to see



THE GLOBE THEATRE, BANKSIDE, IN 1612

how far a roguish mock devotion can be concealed by charm of phrase and rhythm. Here are such perfect lines as

Bare, ruin'd choirs, where late the sweet birds sang.
Here is his honest

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun,
Coral is far more red than her lips' red,—

wherein he makes fun of the poetic rhapsodies of Elizabethan lovers. Here, too, is his mischievous sonnet,

which pictures—though in most musical language—a woman chasing a hen, while her deserted lover begs her to come back and be a mother to him ! These sonnets were published without their author's permission, and he took no step to explain them. Every student of the poet's work has his own interpretation. Which is correct, Shakespeare alone could tell us.

Shakespeare is the world's greatest poet. His genius consists, first, in reading men and women better than any one else has ever read them, in knowing what a person of certain traits would do under certain circumstances, and how the scenes through which that person passed would affect his character ; second, in his ability to express that knowledge with such perfection of form and such brilliancy of imagination as has never been equalled ; third, in the fact that his power both to read and to express was sustained. The dramatists who preceded him and those who worked by his side often had flashes and gleams of insight and momentary powers of expression that were worthy of him ; but the power to see clearly throughout the five acts of a play and to express with equal excellence and consistency the character of the clown and of the king was not theirs.

William Shakespeare was no supernatural being ; he was a very human man. Certainly he never thought of himself as sitting on a pinnacle manufacturing English classics. He threw himself into his poetry, but he never forgot that he was writing plays for people to act and for people to see. No really good work of literature flows from the pen without thought. Shakespeare worked very rapidly, but the thinking was done at some time, either when he took up his pen or before-

Shakes-
peare's
genius.

Shake-
speare as
a man.

hand. He was a straightforward business man, who paid his debts and intended that what was due to him should be paid. He loved his early home and planned, perhaps from the time that he left it, to return to Stratford. Money came to him rapidly, especially after 1599, when the Globe Theatre was built, in which he seems to have owned a generous share. Two years earlier he had been able to buy New Place in Stratford, and about 1611 he returned to his native town. A vast change it must have been to the man whose dramas had won the admiration of the people and of their queen, to come to a quiet village now grown so puritanical that its council had solemnly decreed that the acting of plays within its limits should be regarded as an unlawful deed. He was away from his London friends and their brilliant meetings at the Mermaid Inn, of which one of them, Francis Beaumont, wrote :

What things have we seen
Done at the Mermaid ! heard words that have been
So nimble and so full of subtle flame,
As if that everyone from whence they came
Had meant to put his whole wit in a jest,
And had resolved to live a fool the rest
Of his dull life.

No word of complaint or of loneliness has come down to us. In Stratford were his wife, his two daughters, and the little granddaughter, Elizabeth. There are traditions of visits from his old friends. He had wealth, fame, the home of his choice. In the town of his birth the poet died in 1616, and was buried in the church that still stands beside the river Avon.

Sir Walter Raleigh, 1552 ?-1618. Wonderful

people were those Elizabethans ; for every one seemed to be able to do everything. Perhaps the best example of the man of universal ability is Sir Walter Raleigh, an explorer, a colonizer, the manager of a vast Irish estate, a vice-admiral, a captain of the guard, and a courtier whose flattery could delight even so well flattered a woman as Queen Elizabeth. Moreover, when King James imprisoned him under a false charge of treason, this soldier and sailor and Raleigh's colonizer became an author and produced *History of the World*. among other writings a *History of the World*. 1614. He tells the story clearly and pleasantly. Sometimes he is eloquent, sometimes poetical ; e.g. he speaks of the Roman Empire as a tree standing in the middle of a field. "But after some continuance," he says, "it shall begin to lose the beauty it had ; the storms of ambition shall beat her great boughs and branches one against another ; her leaves shall fall off, her limbs wither, and a rabble of barbarous nations enter the field and cut her down."

Several of the literary giants who began their work in the days of Queen Elizabeth are counted as of the times of James. The greatest of these were the philosopher Francis Bacon and the dramatist Ben Jonson.

Francis Bacon, 1561-1626. Francis Bacon seems to have been "grown up" from his earliest childhood. He was the son of Elizabeth's Lord Keeper, and it is said that as a boy his dignity and intelligence delighted her Majesty so much that she often questioned him on all sorts of subjects to see what he would answer. One day when she asked how old he was, he replied with all the readiness of an experienced courtier, "I am two years younger than your Majesty's happy

reign." When he was little more than a youth, he declared gravely that he had "taken all knowledge" for his province. In most young men this would have been an absurd speech, but in view of what Bacon actually accomplished it seems hardly more than the truth. He was only thirteen when he entered the university, but during his three years of residence, this boy put his finger on the weak spot in the teaching and study of the day. The whole aim seemed to be, he declared, not to discover new truths, but to go over and over the old ones.

Nothing would have pleased him better than to have means enough to live comfortably while he thought and wrote, but he had no fortune. "I must think how to live," he said, "instead of living only to think." The young man of eighteen looked about him, and decided to study law and try to win the patronage of the Queen. In his legal studies he was so successful that his reasoning and eloquence were equally pleasing; but the Queen's patronage was beyond his reach, for she would give him only just enough favour to keep him ever hoping for more.

In the midst of his disappointments he wrote ten essays, which were published in 1597. They were on such subjects as Study, Expense, Followers and Friends, Reputation, etc., and they seemed in many respects more like the reflexions of a man of sixty-three than one of thirty-six. They are so full of wisdom, and the wisdom is expressed so clearly and definitely, that some parts of them seem almost like a sequence of proverbs. Among the sentences most quoted are these:—

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be

read only in parts ; others to be read, but not curiously ; and some few to be read wholly and with diligence and attention. . . . Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.

After James came to the throne, Bacon was raised from one position to another, until at last he became Lord High Chancellor. He lived with the utmost magnificence ; he had fame, wealth, rank, and the favour of his sovereign. He had also enemies, and before three years had passed, a charge of accepting bribes was brought against him. He was declared guilty ; but his real guilt was far less than that of such a deed if done two centuries later ; for the acceptance of bribes, or gifts, by men in high legal positions was a custom of long standing. No attempt was made to show that these gifts had made him decide even one cause unjustly.

Bacon's public life was ended, but it is quite possible that the few years which remained to him were his happiest, for, living quietly with his family, he had at last the leisure for thought for which he had longed. Some time before this he had published more essays, and he had already begun the great work of his life, the *Instauratio Magna*, that is, the "great institution" of true philosophy. This undertaking was the outgrowth of his boyish criticism of Oxford. He planned that the work should give a summary of human knowledge in all branches and should point out a system by which advancement might be made. The philosophers of the day were satisfied with words rather than things ; in seeking for knowledge of nature, for instance, it seemed to them the proper scholastic method not to study nature her-

self but to reason out what seemed to be a fitting law. In Bacon's *Novum Organum*, or "new instrument," he taught that in the study of nature, or in the study of the action of the human mind, men ought, first, to notice how nature and the mind worked, and from this knowledge to derive general laws. The former way of reasoning was called deductive, *i.e.* first make the rule and then explain the facts by it. Bacon's philosophy was inductive, *i.e.* first collect examples and from them form a rule. Inductive reasoning was not original with Bacon by any means. His glory lies in his eliminating all inaccurate, worthless notions, and in his firm belief that all reasoning should lead to advancement of knowledge and to practical good. He said, "I have held up a light . . . which will be seen centuries after I am dead;" and he was right, for it is according to his system that all progress in laws, in commerce, and in science has been made.

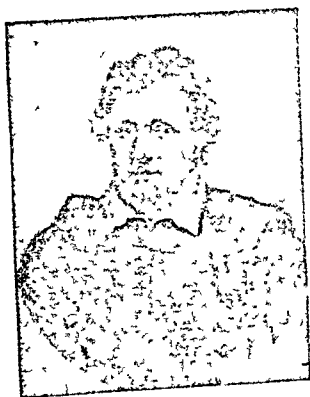
The "Authorized version" of the Bible, 1611. Bacon wrote in Latin because he believed that, while English might pass away, Latin would live for ever; but in 1611, while he was coming to this decision, the Bible was again translated, and the translation was so excellent and later events made its reading so universal, that this one book would itself have saved the English language, if there had been any possibility of its being forgotten. This version was the one which is now in general use, the "authorized version," or the "King James version," as it is sometimes called. Simply as a piece of literature, it is of priceless value. The sonorous rhythm of the *Psalms*, the dignified simplicity of the *Gospels*, the splendid imagery of the *Revelation*,—all these are expressed in clear, concise,

and often beautiful phrases, the influence of which on the last three hundred years of English literature cannot be too highly esteemed.

Ben Jonson, 1573 ?-1637. When Shakespeare returned to Stratford he left London full of playwrights. Many of them had great talent in some one line. Ford and Webster had special power in picturing sorrow and suffering; Beaumont and Fletcher, who worked together, constructed their plots with unusual skill and wrote most exquisite little songs; Chapman has many graceful, beautiful passages; Dekker, as Charles Lamb said, had "poetry enough for anything;" but there was no second Shakespeare. He stood alone, better than all others in all respects. The playwright who stood nearest to him in greatness was Ben Jonson. He was some nine years younger than Shakespeare. He was a London boy, and knew little of the simple country life with which Shakespeare was so familiar. His stepfather taught him his own trade of bricklaying, much to the boy's disgust, for he was eager to continue at school. This privilege came to him through the kindness of strangers, and, as one of his friends said later, he "barrelled up a great deal of knowledge." For a while he served as a soldier in the Netherlands. All this was before he was twenty, for at that age he had found his way to the theatre and was trying to act. As an actor, he was not a great success, but he soon showed that he could succeed in that "retouching" of old plays which served young writers as a school for the drama. The next thing known of him is that in 1598, when he was about five-and-twenty years of age, he wrote a play called *Every Man in His Humour*, which was presented at the theatre with

Every
Man in
His Humour.
our. 1598.

which Shakespeare was connected. There is a tradition that Shakespeare was much interested in the young writer, that he persuaded the managers that the play would be a success, and that he himself took part in it.



BEN JONSON

This maker of plays who had "barrelled up a great deal of knowledge" was most profoundly interested in the classic drama. The ancient dramatists believed that in every play three laws or, as they were called, "the three unities," should be carefully observed. The first was that every part of a drama should help to develop one main story; this was the unity of plot, and was obeyed by Shakespeare as well as Jonson. The second was that the time required by the incidents of a drama should never be longer than a single day; this was the unity of time. The third was that the whole action should occur in one place; this was the unity of place. In the romantic drama, such as Shakespeare's plays, the characters develop, and the reader sees at the end of a play that they have been changed by the experiences that they have met with. In Jonson's plays, the characters have only one day's life, and they are the same at the end as at the beginning. Shakespeare's characters seem alive, and we discuss them, their deeds, and their motives, as if they were men and women of history. We may

The unities.

Shakespeare and Jonson.

realize Jonson's plots, but it is only a few of his characters that one thinks of as ever having really lived. The law of unity of place prevented the writer from moving his scene easily and naturally as in life, and this accounts largely for their unreality. Another respect in which the two writers were quite unlike was that Shakespeare seems to mingle with his characters and to sympathize with every one of them, no matter how unlike they are, while Jonson stands a little on one side and manufactures them; for instance, both wrote plays whose scenes were laid in Rome. Shakespeare shows us the thoughts and feelings of his Romans, but he is careless in regard to manners and customs; Jonson is exceedingly accurate in all such details, but he forgets to put real people into his Roman dress. The result is that, while Shakespeare's Romans are men and women like ourselves, Jonson's are hardly more than lay figures, and that while Shakespeare's characters always act on their own initiative, with Jonson's we are often too conscious that the dramatist is "pulling the strings." Shakespeare treats a Roman "like a vera brither;" Jonson treats even his English characters as persons whose faults he is free to satirize as much as he chooses. In his first comedy he takes the ground that every one has some one special "humour," or whim, which is the governing power of his life. He names his characters according to this theory, and the names of his Knowell, Cash, Clement, Downright, Wellbred, etc., recall the times of the morality plays.

Why is it, then, that with this unreality, this Jonson's weakness in human interest, such excellence
excellence. should have been found in the plays of Jonson? It is because he observed so closely, because

he was so learned and strong and manly, and especially because his fancy was so dainty and beautiful that no one could help being charmed by it. He wrote a number of plays. Every one of them is worth reading; but really to enjoy Jonson, one must read what he wrote when he forgot that the faults of his time ought to be reformed, that is, his masques, which he composed to please the King; for somehow James discovered that this pedant could forget his pedantry, that this wilful, satirical, overbearing, social, genial, warm-hearted author of rather chilly plays could write most exquisite masques. In masques Jonson's Jonson saw no need of observing the unities; ^{masques.} it was all in the land of fancy, and here his fancy had free rein. Of course he praised King James with the utmost servility; but to give such praise in a masque to be acted before the king was not only good policy but it was a custom, and almost as much a literary fashion as writing sonnets or pastorals. In the masque most elaborate scenery was employed, and every device of light and dancing and music. ^{Masque of Oberon.} In the *Masque of Oberon*, for instance, the ¹⁶¹⁰⁻ satyrs "fell suddenly into an antick dance ^{1611.} full of gesture and swift motion." The crowing of the cock was heard, and, as the old stage directions say, "The whole palace opened, and the nation of Faies were discovered, some with instruments, some bearing lights, others singing,"—and Jonson knew well how to write graceful song that was perfectly adapted to these fascinating scenes. ^{The Sad Shepherd.} He is rarely tender, but in his *Sad Shepherd*, an unfinished play, there are the exquisite lines:

Here she was wont to go, and here, and here !
Just where those daisies, pinks, and violets grow ;

The world may find the spring by following her ;
 For other print her airy steps ne'er left :
 Her treading would not bend a blade of grass,
 Or shake the downy blow-ball from his stalk.

Scattered through Jonson's plays are such beautiful bits of poetry as this ; and when we read them, we forgive him his too slavish attention to the unities.

The Tribe of Ben. Jonson became Poet Laureate, the first poet regularly appointed to that position ; but his courtly honours can hardly have given him as much real pleasure as the devotion of the younger literary men, the "Tribe of Ben," as they were called, who gathered around him with frank admiration and liking.

The romantic plays that most resembled the drama of Shakespeare were written in partnership by two men, Francis Beaumont and John Fletcher. **Francis Beaumont, 1584-1616; John Fletcher, 1579-1625.** Hardly anything is known of their lives except that they were warm friends and kept bachelor's hall together. Beaumont was twenty-three and Fletcher twenty-eight when their partnership began ; and it lasted until the death of Beaumont, nearly ten years later, after which Fletcher continued alone. Working together was a common practice among the dramatists, and sometimes we can trace almost with certainty the lines of a play written by one man and those written by his fellow-worker ; but in the case of Beaumont and Fletcher, the closest study has resulted in little more than elaborate guesswork. These two come nearest to Shakespeare on his own lines, that is, they can read men well, and they can put their thoughts into beautiful verse ; but in the third point of Shakespeare's greatness they are lacking ; Shake-

speare could sustain himself, Beaumont and Fletcher often fail. Their characters are not always what their natural traits and circumstances would have made them.

Beaumont died in 1616, the year of Shakespeare's death. Seven years later, thirty-six of Shakespeare's plays were collected and published in a book which is known as the *First Folio*. Ben Jonson wrote the dedication, "To the memory of my beloved Master William Shakespeare, and what he hath left us." His poem is fairly flowing with love and appreciation and admiration for the man who would not observe the unities. It is full of such enthusiastic lines as,

Soul of the age !
The applause, delight, the wonder of our stage !
He was not of an age, but for all time.
While I confess thy writings to be such
As neither Man nor Muse can praise too much.

Ben Jonson was not given to singing indiscriminate praises, and these words speak volumes for the sturdy friendship between the two men who differed so honestly about what pertained to their art. Stories were told many years afterwards of the "wit-combats" which had taken place between the two ; of Jonson's solid, learned arguments and Shakespeare's inventive, quick-witted retorts. It would be worth a whole library full of ordinary books to have a verbatim report of only one of those merry meetings.

Closing of the theatres, 1642. Ben Jonson died in 1637, and only five years later the drama came to an abrupt end by the breaking out of the Civil War and the passing of a law closing the theatres. Per-

haps the coming of the end should not be called abrupt, for the glory of the Elizabethan drama had been gradually fading away. Looking back upon it from the vantage ground of nearly three centuries, it is easy to see that the beginning of the downfall was in the work of rugged, honest, obstinate, and altogether delightful Ben Jonson; for with him the drama first consciously attempted to reform society instead of being content with portraying it, and exaggerated a single trait of a man rather than depict his whole character. Little by little the first inspiration vanished, and did not leave behind it the ability to distinguish good from evil. Beautiful lyrics and worthless doggerel stood side by side. There was a demand for "something new." Plots were no longer probable or fascinatingly impossible, they were simply improbable. Characters gradually ceased to be interesting. Worse than this, they were often unpleasant. The court of his Majesty James I. was not marked by an exquisite decorum in either speech or manner. Vulgarity and coarseness filtered down from the throne to the theatres; it was time that they were closed.

Increasing power of the Puritans. A second reason for the decadence of the drama is so intertwined with the first that they can hardly be separated, namely, the ever-increasing power of the Puritans. Even before 1611, their influence had become so strong that in numerous places besides Stratford it was forbidden to act plays. Many years earlier, even before Shakespeare first went to London, some of the Puritans wrote most earnestly against play-acting. One spoke of "Poets, Pipers, Plaiers, Jesters, and such-like caterpillars of a Commonwealth;" but he

had the grace to except some few plays which he thought of better character than the rest. One strong reason why the Puritans opposed plays at that time was because they were performed on Sundays as well as week-days, and people were inclined to obey the trumpet of the theatre rather than the bell of the church. Sunday acting was given up, and as the years passed, not only the Puritans, but those among their opponents who looked upon life thoughtfully, began to feel that the theatre, with the immorality and indecency of many of the plays then in vogue, was no place for them. It was abandoned to the thoughtless, to those who cared little for the character of a play so long as it amused them, and to those who had no dislike for looseness of manners and laxness of principles. Such was the audience for whom playwrights had begun to cater. In 1642 came war between the King and the people. In 1649 King Charles was beheaded, and until 1660 the Puritan party was in power.

Literature of the conflict. Apart from the work of the dramatists, whose business it was to gratify the taste of their audiences, what kind of writing would naturally be produced in such a time of conflict, when so many were becoming more and more thoughtful of matters of religious living and when the line between the Puritans and the followers of the court was being drawn more closely every year? We should look first for a meditative, critical spirit in literature; then for earnestly religious writings, both prose and poetry, from both Puritan and Churchman; and along with these a lighter, merrier strain from the courtier writers, not necessarily irreligious, but distinctly non-religious.

John Donne, 1573-1631. This is precisely what came to pass ; but in this variety of literary productions there was hardly an author who was not influenced by the writings of a much admired preacher and poet named John Donne, the Dean of St Paul's. His life covered the reign of James and two-thirds of that of Elizabeth, but just when his poems were written is not known. They are noted for two qualities. One of these was so purely his own that no one could imitate it, the power to illuminate his subject with a sudden and flashing thought. That is why stray lines of Donne's linger in the memory, such as

I long to talk with some old lover's ghost,
Who died before the god of love was born.

Unfortunately, it was the second quality which was so generally imitated. This was, not the flashing out of a thought, but the wrapping it up and concealing it so that it requires a distinct intellectual effort to find out what is meant ; for instance, in the very poem just quoted are the lines :

But when an even flame two hearts did touch,
His [Love's] office was indulgently to fit
Actives to passives ; correspondence
Only his subject was ; it cannot be
Love, if I love who loves not me.

Of course one finally reasons it out that Donne means to say love should inspire love, that " I love " and " I am loved " should " fit ; " but by that time the reader is inclined to agree with honest Ben Jonson, who declared that Donne " for not being understood would perish."

Sometimes, again, Donne conceals his thought in so complicated, far-fetched a simile that one has to

stop and reason out its significance. He writes of two souls, his own and that of his beloved :

If they be two, they are two so
 As stiff twin compasses are two ;
 Thy soul, the fixed foot, makes no show
 To move, but doth if th' other do.

And though it in the centre sit,
 Yet when the other far doth roam,
 It leans and hearkens after it,
 And grows erect as that comes home.

These "conceits," as they were called, greatly influenced the poets of the age. There were also two other influences, that of Ben Jonson for carefulness of form and expression, and that of Spenser, still remembered, for beauty and sweetness and richness of imagery ; but of these three influences, that of Donne was, temporarily, the strongest.

John Milton, 1608-1674. Of the poets who wrote between 1625 and 1660, John Milton stands for the poetry of meditation. He was born in 1608, the son of a well-to-do Londoner. The father was anxious that his son should devote himself to literature ; and when he saw how perfectly the boy's wishes harmonized with his own, he left him absolutely free to follow his own will. Less freedom in some respects might have been better ; for this boy of twelve with weak eyes and frequent headaches went



JOHN MILTON,
 1608-1674

to school daily, had also tutors at home, and made it his regular practice to study until midnight. He entered Cambridge at sixteen, not the ideal bookworm by any means, for he was so beautiful that he was nicknamed the "Lady of Christ's College."

While Milton was still a student, he wrote his *Hymn on the Morning of Christ's Nativity*, a most exquisite Christmas poem. The stanzas are perfect wherein his learning serves only for adornment and his mind is full of the thought of the Christ Child; but some of

*Hymn on
the Morn-
ing of
Christ's
Nativity.*
1629.

those toward the end of the poem, which are a little weighed down by his learning, have less charm. This poem, one of Milton's earliest as it was, has a kind of unearthly sweetness of melody and clearness of vision.

It seems to have come from another world; to have been written in a finer, rarer atmosphere. The feeling deepens on reading *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, the masque *Comus*, and *Lycidas*, all composed within six years after Milton left the university and while he was devoting himself to music and study at his father's country home. He was only twenty-nine when the last of these poems was written. The first two, whose titles may be translated "The Cheerful Man" and "The Thoughtful Man," are descriptions, not of nature, but of the way nature affects the poet when he is in different moods. It is interesting to compare Milton's work with that of earlier times. In *L'Allegro* he writes :

Mountains on whose barren breast
The labouring clouds do often rest :
Meadows trim with daisies pied ;
Shallow brooks and rivers wide :
Towers and battlements it sees
Bosomed high in tufted trees.

Surrey loved nature, but this is the way he describes a similar scene :

The mountains high and how they stand !
 The valleys and the great main land !
 The trees, the herbs, the towers strong,
 The castles and the rivers long !

Poetry made noble progress in the century that lay between the two writers.

L'Allegro and *Il Penseroso* reveal Milton himself. *L'Allegro* speaks of jest and laughter and dancing and mirth ; but Milton is not made mirthful, he is only an onlooker, he is never one of those who have—

Poems
 written
 between
 1632 and
 1638.

Come forth to play
 On a sunshine holyday.

Of the other poems, *Comus* is a masque which was presented at Ludlow Castle. *Lycidas* is a pastoral elegy in memory of a college friend who had been lost at sea. In true pastoral fashion it introduces the "flock," the "shepherd," and the "swain ;" but it is much more than a mere pastoral. For Milton had ever the courage of his convictions, and both here and in his early masque, *Comus*, there are stern lines rebuking the evils of the times and the scandals of the church. It was easy to see on which side Milton would stand when the struggle broke out between the King and the Puritans.

Milton as a pamphleteer. When it was plain that war must come, Milton was travelling on the Continent, honoured and admired wherever he went by the men of greatest distinction. He had planned a much longer stay ; but "I thought it base to be travelling for amusement abroad while my fellow-

citizens were striking a blow for freedom," he said, and forthwith he set off for England. War had not yet broken out, but this earnest Puritan began to write pamphlets against the Church of England and against the King. In these controversial pamphlets he seizes any weapon that comes to hand; dignified rebuke, whirlwinds of denunciation, bitter sarcasm, or sheer insolence and railing, but never humour. In his prose he has small regard for form or even for the convenience of his readers; in his *Arcopagitica*, a plea for the freedom of the press, his sentences are overpowering in their length; three hundred words is by no means an unusual number: and yet whether his sentences are long or short, simple or involved, there is seldom wanting that same magnificent flow of harmony that is the glory of his poetry. Milton is always Milton.

Among his pamphlets are some that he wrote on divorce. In the midst of the war, he, the stern Milton's Puritan, married young Mary Powell, the marriage. daughter of an ardent Royalist. After one gloomy month she returned to her own more cheerful home, and in the two years that passed before she would come back to him, he comforted himself by arguing in favour of divorce.

King Charles I was executed in 1649, and when Cromwell became Lord Protector, Milton was made Milton as his Latin Secretary. Milton seems cold and Latin unapproachable, but in one weighty act during the years of his Secretaryship he comes nearer to us than at any other time. The son of the dead King was in France, and in his behalf a Latin pamphlet had been written by one of the most profound scholars of the time, upholding the course of Charles and declaring those who brought him to his

death to be murderers. The Royalists were jubilant, for they thought no adequate reply could be given. The Puritans who knew John Milton best were confident, for they believed that he could confute the reasoning. It was a work requiring study and research as well as skill in argument. Milton began, but very soon the question came to him, whether to complete the paper or to save himself from blindness, for he found that his sight was rapidly failing. He made his choice and wrote

*Defence
of the
English
People.*
1650.



PRINTING-OFFICE OF 1619

his *Defence of the English People*. Three years later, sitting in total darkness, he wrote :

What supports me, dost thou ask?
The conscience, Friend, t' have lost them overpled
In liberty's defence, my noble task.

Milton's sonnets. From 1637 to 1660 Milton wrote nothing but these stern, earnest pamphlets and a few sonnets, one in honour of Cromwell, and one, *On the Late Massacre in Piemont*, that sounds like the fiercest denunciations of a Hebrew prophet. More than one sonnet is on his own blindness; and here every one must bow in reverence, for, shut up in hopeless darkness, he grieves only lest his "one talent" is lodged with him useless; and the last line of one of them (see p. 160) fairly glows with a transfigured courage,—

They also serve who only stand and wait.

Milton had need of courage, for in 1660 the power of the Puritans was gone. The country was tired of their strict laws, and Charles II, son of the beheaded Charles, was brought back in triumph to the throne of his fathers. Milton might well have been pardoned for feeling that his sacrifices were wasted. He was not without consolation, however, for in his mind there was an ever brightening vision of a glorious work that he hoped to accomplish even in his darkness.

CHAPTER VIII

PURITANS AND CAVALIERS II

The religious poets, Herbert, Crashaw, Vaughan. Leaving for a while Milton, the poet of meditation, we return to the other writers of the time of contest between the King's claim and the people's right ; first, to the religious authors, poets, and prose writers. The best known work of most of them was done between 1640 and 1650, save for that of George Herbert, who died in 1633.

George Herbert, 1593-1633. Herbert was born of a noble family, and was expected to do honour to it by entering court life. At first all things went smoothly. He had hardly taken his degree before honours were shown him which seemed the first steps to political advancement. In a very short time, however, the friends died upon whom he had depended for influence with King James ; and he suddenly made up his mind to enter the church. His fashion of deciding momentous questions with a startling promptness he carried into other matters ; for, three days after meeting the young woman who won his heart, their marriage took place. Again, when a more important position was offered him than the one which he held, he refused to accept it ; but having yielded to the archbishop's arguments, he ordered the proper canonical garments to be made ready on the following

morning, put them on at once, and was inducted before night.

This man of rapid decisions had a sweet face and a gentle, courteous manner that won him friends wherever he went. He was the most modest of men, and in his last sickness he directed that his poems should be burned, unless the friend to whom he entrusted them thought they would be of advantage to "any poor, dejected soul."



GEORGE HERBERT,
1593-1633

The writings were printed, and became very popular. The name of the volume was *The Temple*. It contained more than one hundred and

fifty short religious poems. They have not the richness of the lyrics of the dramatists, they have not the learning or the imagination of Milton; but they are so sincere, so earnest, and so practical that they were loved from the first. Herbert's is an every-day religion; he is not afraid to speak of simple needs and simple duties. In his *Elvair*, which begins with the childlike petition,

Teach me, my God and King,
In all things Thee to see,
And what I do in anything,
To do it as for Thee,—

he inserts the homely, helpful stanza,

A servant with this clause
Makes drudgery divine:
Who sweeps a room as for Thy laws,
Makes that and th' action fine.

Herbert is full of conceits. After writing a beautiful little poem about the blessing of rest being withheld from man that for want of it he may be drawn to God, he named his poem *The Pulley!* He wrote verses in the shape of an altar and in the shape of wings; he wrote verses like these:

I bless Thee, Lord, because I GROW
Among the trees, which in a ROW
To Thee both fruit and order OW.

But one willingly pardons such whims to the man who could write the christianized common sense of *The Church Porch* and the tender, sunlit verses of—

Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright.

Richard Crashaw, 1613 ?–1649. The names of two other religious poets of the time are familiar, Richard Crashaw and Henry Vaughan. Crashaw, as well as Herbert and Vaughan, was of the Church of England, but he afterwards became a Roman Catholic and spent his last years in Italy. In 1646 he published a collection of most of his works, with the title *Steps to the Temple: Sacred Poems with other Delights of the Muses*, containing both religious and secular verse. Steps to
the Tem-
ple. 1646.

Crashaw is best remembered by a single line of religious verse, his Latin line in reference to Christ's changing of water into wine, "Nympha pudice deum, vidit et erubuit," translated into English by Dryden thus,

The conscious water saw its Lord and blushed,—

and also by his lightly written but half-earnest verses, *Wishes to His (Supposed) Mistress*:

Whoe'er she be,
That not impossible she,
That shall command my heart and me.

He goes on endowing her with every beauty and every virtue. He writes :

Her that dares be
What these lines wish to see :
I seek no further ; it is she.

He ought to end here, but he continues for several stanzas more. He is somewhat like the writers of seven or eight centuries earlier in his way of beginning a poem and writing on and on without any very definite plan. If some kind critic had only looked over the shoulder of this man who was capable of composing such charming bits of verse, we might have had from him some rarely beautiful poems.

Henry Vaughan 1622-1695. In 1650, the year after the death of Crashaw, Henry Vaughan, the Silurist, or Welshman, published his *Silx Scintillans*, or "sparks from the flintstone."

Silx Scintillans.
1650.

He explains the title in one of his poems :

Lord ! thou didst put a soul here. If I must
Be broken again, for flints will give no fire
Without a steel, O let thy power clear
The gift once more, and grind this flint to dust !

The allusion to his being "broken" is explained by the fact that a long illness had turned his mind upon heaven rather than upon earth. Eternity was his one thought. His poem, *The World*, begins superbly :

I saw eternity the other night,
Like a great ring of pure and endless light,
All calm as it was bright.

This is a conceit, to be sure, but it is a glorious one.

Vaughan loves nature, and his *Bird* is as tender as it is strong. One might fancy that it was Robert Burns himself who speaks :

Hither thou com'st. The busie wind all night
Blew through thy lodging, where thy own warm wing
Thy pillow was. Many a sullen storm,
For which coarse man seems much the fitter born,
Rain'd on thy bed
And harmless head.

And now as fresh and cheerful as the light,
Thy little heart in early hymns doth sing
Unto that Providence, Whose unseen arm
Curb'd them, and cloath'd thee well and warm.

Vaughan sees what is beautiful in the world and loves it ; but all the while he looks through it and beyond it. Herbert, whose life and poems were his model, wrote :

A man that looks on glass,
On it may stay his eye ;
Or if he pleaseth, through it pass,
And then the heavens espy.

So it is that Vaughan looks upon nature. Even in his lines to a little bird, he says that though the birds of light make a land glad, yet there are night birds with mournful note, and ends,—

Brightness and mirth, and love and faith, all flye,
Till the day-spring breaks forth again from high.

All that he writes comes from his own experience. There is not a hint of glancing at his audience ; every poem sounds as if it had been written for his own eyes and for those of no one else. There is somewhat of the charm of "Jerusalem the golden" in his

My soul, there is a countrie,
Afair beyond the stars ;

but the poem which has been the most general favourite is :

They all are gone into the world of light !
And I alone sit ling'ring here !
Their very memory is fair and bright,
And my sad thoughts doth clear.

Writers of Religious Prose. These three men, Herbert, Crashaw, and Vaughan, the Church of England clergyman, the Roman Catholic priest, and the Welsh physician, produced the best religious poetry of England during the Commonwealth and the troublous times preceding the same period. There were also three prominent writers of religious prose, Thomas Fuller, Jeremy Taylor, and Richard Baxter.

Thomas Fuller, 1608-1661. Fuller was a clergyman of the Church of England. He was so eloquent that his sermons were said to have been preached to two audiences, those within the room and those who filled the windows and the doors. "Not only full but Fuller,"

the jesters used to say. Fuller published in 1642 his *Holy State and Profane State*, which was sparkling with bits of wisdom.

"She commandeth her husband by constantly obeying him," is one of his epigrams. His sermons were always interesting, for he was not only earnest and able, but he was quaintness itself. His subjects are a study. One series of sermons was on "Joseph's Party-coloured Coat." One was on "An ill match well broken off"; and had for its text, "Love not the world."

Fuller's best known book is not religious but historical, and is the outgrowth of his experience as an army chaplain; for while he was with the king's soldiers, he spent his spare time collecting bits of local information about prominent persons. He wandered about

among the people, listening for hours at a time to the garrulous village gossips for the sake of obtaining some one good story, some bit of reminiscence, or an ancient doggerel rhyme, as the case might be ; and he put them all into his book, *The Worthies of England*, or *The Fuller's Worthies*, as it is commonly called. The Worthies of England, 1662. He describes one man as a "facetious dissenting divine," another as a "pious divine;" of another he says, "He did first creep, then run, then fly into preferment ; or rather preferment did fly upon him without his expectation." He says of another man, "He was a partial writer," but adds consolingly that he is buried "near a good and true historian." He is full of quaint antitheses and conceits ; for example, he says that gardening is "a tapestry in earth," and that tapestry is a "gardening in cloth." Of the sister of Lady Jane Grey he writes that she wept so much that "though the roses in her cheeks looked very wan and pale, it was not for want of watering."

Jeremy Taylor, 1613-1667. The second of the religious writers, Jeremy Taylor, was the author of *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying*. He was one of the Holy Living 1650 ; Holy Dying, 1651. chaplains of King Charles, though there was some hesitation about appointing him because of his youth. The young man was equal to the occasion, however, for he begged the archbishop to pardon that fault and promised to mend it if he lived. He certainly deserved anything that England could offer, if the account of his early sermons is at all accurate, which says his audience was forced to take him for "some young angel, newly descended from the visions of glory."

Jeremy Taylor is always fresh and bright and interesting. In whatever he says, there is some turn of

thought, some bit of sweetness or gentleness that is unlike the work of others. His similes especially are so simple and natural that once heard, they cannot be forgotten. He says :

I have seen young and unskilful persons sitting in a little boat, when every little wave sporting about the sides of the vessel, and every motion and dancing of the barge seemed a danger, and made them cling fast upon their fellows ; and yet all the while they were as safe as if they sat under a tree, while a gentle wind shook the leaves into a refreshing and cooling shade. And the unskilful, inexperienced Christian shrieks out whenever his vessel shakes . . . and yet, all his danger is in himself, none at all from without.

He loves nature, and he notices all the little things as well as the great. In likening the comforting words of a true friend to the coming of spring, he says :

But so have I seen the sun kiss the frozen earth, which was bound up with the images of death and the colder breath of the north ; and then the waters break from their enclosures, and melt with joy and run in useful channels ; and the flies do rise again from their little graves in walls, and dance awhile in the air to tell that there is joy within.

Richard Baxter, 1615-1691. The third of these writers of religious prose was Richard Baxter. In his youth he spent one month at court, but found a courtier's life unendurable. He became a clergyman of the Church of England and finally a thorough-going Puritan. He wrote *The Saints' Everlasting Rest* ; and he might well turn his mind toward rest, for he lived in the midst of danger and persecution. "Methinks," he wrote, "among my books I could employ myself in sweet content, and bid the world farewell, and pity the rich and great that know not this happiness ; what then will my happiness in heaven be, where my knowledge

The
Saints'
Everlast-
ing Rest.
1650.

will be perfect?" Apart from his earnestness Baxter's great charm lies in his simplicity and directness. Whoever reads the book feels as if the author were talking rather than writing, and talking directly to him and to no one else. He is sincere and powerful, but entirely without embellishments. He said he never had "leisure for polishing or exactness or any ornament." He thought of nothing but the good that he might do. When some one praised his books, he replied, "I was but a pen, and what praise is due to a pen?"



RICHARD BAXTER,
1615-1691

The "Cavalier Poets." Entirely different from these earnest, serious preachers was a merry little group of "Cavalier Poets," as they have been called, all, save one, closely connected with the court of Charles I. In this group were four who were superior to the others of their class. They were Thomas Carew, Sir John Suckling, Richard Lovelace, and Robert Herrick.

Thomas Carew, 1598?-1645? Carew was sewer, or cup-bearer to King Charles, and was a favourite at the court. He would probably have won just as much praise from the gay company around him if he had written as carelessly as some of them, but that was not Carew's way. His poems are not deep and powerful, but they are never careless. He begins with a thought, perhaps a very simple one, but he is care-

ful to express it smoothly and gracefully as if it were
Ask Me a whole epic. His lyrics are his best known
no More. work, especially the song, *Ask Me no More*.
 Quite different are they in tone from those of the
 "complaining" lovers of *Tottel's Miscellany*. Carew
 ventures to write *The Lady to Her Inconstant Servant*;
 but in Surrey's poems the "servant" never dreamed
 of being inconstant. Carew knows how to appreciate
 beauty, but again and again he turns from a pretty
 face to the qualities of heart and mind. Perhaps as
 well known as *Ask Me no More* are the first two
 stanzas of *Disdain Returned*:

He that loves a rosy cheek,
 Or a coral lip admires,
 Or from star-like eyes doth seek
 Fuel to maintain his fires,
 As old Time makes these decay,
 So his flames must waste away.

But a smooth and steadfast mind,
 Gentle thoughts and calm desires,
 Hearts, with equal love combined,
 Kindle never-dying fires;
 Where these are not, I despise
 Lovely cheeks or lips or eyes.

Sir John Suckling, 1609-1642. Sir John Suckling
 used to laugh at Carew for being so careful to make his
 poems smooth and finished; for he himself tossed off
 a rhyme as lightly as one blows away a bit of thistle-
 down. Somehow in reading the best of Suckling's
 poems, we can never get away from the feeling that
 Sir John himself is reciting them to us, and we fancy
 the mischievous sparkle of his eyes as he queries,—

Why so pale and wan, fond lover?
 Prithee, why so pale?

Ill, when looking well can't move her,
 Looking ill prevail?
 'Tishee, why so pale?

Suckling wrote a gay little letter in rhyme to a certain "Dick," telling him about a wedding that he had attended. It is all merry and bright, but when he comes to talk about the bride, he is fairly bubbling over with fun:

Her feet beneath her petticoat,
 Like little mice stole in and out,
 As if they fear'd the light
 But O she dances such a way!
 No sun upon an Easter-day
 Is half so fine a sight.

This gay young courtier, rich, handsome, and talented, led a very full and adventurous life. He spent four years wandering over the Continent, fought for the King of Sweden, returned to London, left the court for a time, but hastened back to aid the Royalist party. After the final victory of the Puritans, he fled from England; and it is even said that in Spain he endured the most fearful tortures of the Inquisition, but that he finally escaped. All this was before he was thirty-three, for in that year of his age he died.

Richard Lovelace, 1618-1658. Richard Lovelace had a life equally full of change. He, like Suckling, was a court favourite. He, too, was rich, handsome, and talented; and he, too, stood firmly by the man whom he believed to be his rightful sovereign. For the king's sake he bore imprisonment, and it was in prison that he wrote *To Althea*, with its famous lines,—

Stone walls do not a prison make,
 Nor iron bars a cage.

There are two more lines of Lovelace's that are as familiar as any proverb,—

I could not love thee, dear, so much,
Loved I not honour more.

The woman whom he loved believed him to be dead, and married another man. He was in despair, and he cared little what became of him. He threw away his fortune, and finally died in the depths of poverty.

Robert Herrick, 1591–1674. The fourth of these Cavalier poets, and by far the greatest, was Robert Herrick. His life was quite different from that of the others in that he knew nothing of days at court. He had some fourteen years of quiet at Cambridge, and then twenty years of greater quiet as minister of a little country parish. He wrote more lyrics than any of his fellow poets, and a large number of them have that unexplainable quality which makes us say, "That is just the thought for the place."

"Robin" was one of the few men who are every inch alive. He loved the old Greek dances, but he could find amusement in watching his parishioners gambol around an English Maypole. He wrote a *Thanksgiving* for his little house, his watercress, his fire, his bread, and his "belovéd beet" as simply and as sincerely as a child. Herrick enjoyed everything.

Where care
None is, slight things do lightly please,

he says gaily. He calls upon music,

Fall on me like a 'silent dew,
Or like those maiden showers,
Which, by the peep of day, do strew
A baptism o'er the flowers ;

but he is equally ready to chat in rhyme about his maid "Prewdence," his hen, his cat, his goose, or his dog Tracy.

Herrick wrote two collections of poems, *The Hesperides* and *Noble Numbers*. *The Hesperides* is all aglow with sunshine; it is full of "brooks, of blossoms, birds, and bowers," as he says in his argument. The Hesperides. 1648. Chaucer writes of the spring-time and of the longing that it gives folk to go on pilgrimage, but there is even more of the springtime eagerness to go somewhere under the open sky in Herrick's *Corinna's Going a-Maying*.

Get up, get up for shame ' the blooming morn
Upon her wings presents the god unshorn.
See how Aurora throws her fur
Fre sh-quilted colours through the air;
Get up, sweet slug-a-bed, and see
The dew bespangling herb and tree.

To "Julia" he writes a crisp little *Night Piece*,—

Her eyes the glow-worm lend thee,
Then shooting stars attend thee;
And the elves also,
Whose little eyes glow
Like the sparks of fire, befriend thee.

He writes to "Corinna" or "Perilla" or "Anthea," but not with the agonies of Elizabethan lovers; for he seems to have no more choice among them than that one name will suit his line and another will not.

His religious poems, *Noble Numbers*, are somewhat different from those of the other writers of religious verse. He is no hermit, no recluse. "God is over the world, then let us enjoy it," is the spirit of his verse. Noble Numbers. 1647. He does not long for the mystic joys of martyrdom; he does not often beg

for more blessings either spiritual or temporal ; but he is grateful for what he has, and does not doubt that goodness and mercy will follow him all the days of his life. Even in his *Litany* there are no agonies of doubt and uncertainty. He prays for comfort, and he expects to receive it.

In the hour of my distress,
When temptations me oppress,
And when I my sins confess,
Sweet Spirit, comfort me.

.
When the Judgment is reveal'd,
And that open'd which was seal'd ;
When to Thee I have appeal'd,
Sweet Spirit, comfort me.

There is an unmistakable tone of sincerity in the following lines, one of the first poems in *Noble Numbers* :

Forgive me, God, and blot each line
Out of my book that is not Thine.
But if, 'mongst all, thou find'st here one
Worthy thy benediction ;
That one of all the rest shall be
The glory of my work and me.

One little corner of his writings is so unlike the rest of his poems that it might pass for the work of another author ; but, save for that, Herrick is the most delightful, frank, refreshing man that one can imagine, fairly running over with the joy of living, and with the cheerfulness that comes from finding great pleasure in small pleasures.

Izaak Walton, 1593-1683. One author who will not fall into line with the others of his day is Izaak

Walton. The confusion and troubles of the Civil War did not suit him, and he slipped away to the country to find peace and quiet. He lived to be ninety years old, but not in loneliness, for his friends were always ready to go to see this man with his brightness, intelligence, and gentle, whimsical humour. He was not without occupation in his country home, for there he wrote the lives of several famous men of his time, Donne and Herbert among them. These *Lives* are so tender and sincere that they seem to be simple talks about friends who were dear to him, an ideal mode of writing bio-



IZAAK WALTON

1593-1683

ographies. Best of his works, however, is *The Compleat Angler*. In one way it is a wise little treatise on the different kinds of fish and the best modes of catching them; but its charm lies not in information about hooks and bait but in Walton's genuine love of the country and in the quaintness of his thoughts. He treats fishing with gravity, whether mock or real it is sometimes hard to tell. "Angling is somewhat like poetry," he declares learnedly, "men are to be born so;" and he gives as the epitaph of a friend, "An excellent angler, and now with God." "Look about you," he says, "and see how pleasantly that meadow looks, nay, and the earth smells so sweetly too: Come let me tell you what holy Mr. Herbert says of

The Compleat Angler. 1653.

such days and flowers as these, and then we will thank God that we enjoy them,"—and he recites,—

Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright.

It is no marvel that his old friends never forsook the man who could chat so simply and delightfully. He is especially charming when he talks of music, whether it be the "smooth song which was made by Kit Marlow" or the inimitable melody of the nightingale. Of the latter he writes : —

But the nightingale, another of my airy creatures, breathes such sweet loud music out of her little instrumental throat, that it might make mankind to think miracles were not ceased. He that at midnight, when the very labourer sleeps securely, should hear, as I have very often, the clear airs, the sweet descants, the natural rising and falling, the doubling and redoubling of her voice, might well be lifted above earth, and say, "Lord, what musick hast thou provided for the Saints in Heaven, when thou affordest bad men such musick on Earth !"

The Restoration, 1660. The year 1660 found England tired of Puritan control. Across the Channel was the son of Charles I, and he was invited to return and rule the land, as has been said. Unfortunately, he could not even rule himself, and his idea of being king was little more than to have plenty of money and amusement. At first the nation could hardly help sympathizing with him and his merry Cavalier friends ; for the last years had been dull and gloomy. After the supreme power fell into the hands of the Puritans, they suppressed as far as possible all public amusements, and they made no distinction between the brutalities of bull-baiting and the simple dancing around a Maypole which had so entertained Herrick. Much of this unreasonable strictness was due to men who were not really

Puritans at heart, but who had joined the ruling party for the sake of power; and these men went beyond the others in severity in order to make themselves appear zealous converts.

Samuel Butler, 1612-1680. It is possible that some of these turncoats had a sly relish of a book, the first part of which came out in 1663, and *Hudibras*, which threw the merry monarch and his ^{1663-68.} court into gales of laughter. Its name was *Hudibras*, and it was written by one Samuel Butler. Among the few facts known of his life is that he was for some time a member of the household of a Puritan colonel. The gentleman never guessed that he himself in caricature was to be the laughing-stock of the son of the king whom his party had beheaded. This Puritan becomes in Butler's hands a knight who sets out with his squire, quite in the mediæval fashion, to range the country through and correct abuses. Thus is Sir Hudibras described :

For he was of that stubborn crew
Of errant saints, whom all men grant
To be the true Church Militant :
Such as do build their faith upon
The holy text of pike and gun ;
Decide all controversies by
Infallible artillery,
And prove their doctrine orthodox,
By Apostolic blows and knocks.

There was much comfort in this satire for the men who had been beaten by the "infallible artillery."

Nobody cares much to-day which side Butler made fun of. We value *Hudibras* for its amusing similes, its real wisdom, and its witty couplets, such as :

The sun had long since in the lap
Of Thetis taken out his nap,

And, like a lobster boiled, the morn
From black to red began to turn.

Great conquerors greater glory gain
By foes in triumph led than slain.

He that complies against his will
Is of his own opinion still.

Butler is said to have expected a reward from the King and to have been disappointed. This was quite in the style of Charles II, whose gratitude was reserved for the favours which he hoped to receive.

Milton's later years. The only gratitude that can be felt toward Charles himself is for his negative goodness in not persecuting to the death John Milton, a man who had been so prominent during the Commonwealth and who had written the *Defence of the English People*. The poet was left to spend his later years in peace; and then it was that his mind turned toward a plan of his youth that had long been laid aside for the time of quiet that he hoped would come. He wished to write some long poem on a subject that was worthy of his ability. Just what that subject should be was not easy to decide. He thought of taking King Arthur for a hero and writing a British epic; but his plan broadened until he determined to write—

Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat.

These are the first lines of *Paradise Lost*. The poem is based upon Rev. xii. 7-9, the third chapter of Genesis, and other passages in the Bible. *Paradise Lost*, 1667. Satan rebels against God and with his angels is cast out of heaven into the flames of hell. While

they lie in chains, the world is created, and man is given the Garden of Eden for his home. Satan rouses his angels to revenge themselves by tempting man. He himself makes his way to Eden and persuades Eve to disobey the command of God. Adam joins her in the sin, and both are driven from Eden ; but a vision is granted to show that man shall one day find redemption.

To treat so lofty a theme in such manner that the treatment shall not by contrast appear trivial and unworthy is a rare triumph. Milton has succeeded so far as success is possible. His imagination does not fail : his poetic expression is ever suited to his thought ; the mere sound of his phrases is a wonderful organ music, for Milton is master of all the beauties and intricacies of poetic harmony. Short extracts give no idea of the majesty of the poem, though there are scores of lines that have become familiar in every-day speech, such as

The mind is its own place, and in itself
Can make a heaven of hell, a hell of heaven.

Not to know me argues yourselves unknown.

The world was all before them, where to choose.

Milton ever suits the word to the thought. To express harshness of sound he says :

On a sudden open fly,
With impetuous recoil and jarring sound,
Th' infernal doors, and on their hinges grate
Harsh thunder.

There is the very hush of evening in the lines,

Then silent Night
With this her solemn bird and this fair moon.

Here is gliding smoothness :

Liquid lapse of murmuring streams.

Milton had thought that the vision shown to Adam of the final redemption of man was all-sufficient ; but a Quaker friend who had read the manuscript said to him, "Thou hast said much of Paradise lost, but what hast thou to say to Paradise found?" This simple question inspired Milton's second long poem, *Paradise Regained*, which he—and he only—preferred to the first. After this he wrote *Samson Agonistes*, a tragedy which conforms in every way to the rules of the Greek drama. These poems were dictated in his blindness. One sonnet, written during those years of darkness, explains the power by which he endured so crushing a misfortune :

When I consider how my light is spent,
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent which is death to hide
Lodg'd with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest He returning chide ;
"Doth God exact day-labour, light denied?"
I fondly ask : but Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies, "God doth not need
Either man's work, or his own gifts ; who best
Bear his mild yoke, they serve Him best : his state
Is kingly ; thousands at his bidding speed,
And post o'er land and ocean without rest ;
They also serve who only stand and wait."

A child may find pleasure in the musical sound of *Paradise Lost*, but the fullest enjoyment and appreciation of the poem require familiarity not only with the Bible, but with classical literature. Four years after Milton's death a book came out which to children is a

fascinating story and to the learned a marvellously perfect allegory, while to thousands of humble seekers after the way in which they should walk it has been a guide and an inspiration. This book is *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

John Bunyan, 1628-1688. It was written by John Bunyan, a man whose life was in many ways the opposite of Milton's, for he was poor and almost without even the simplest beginnings of education. There is small reason for thinking that Milton ever looked upon himself as in any respect a wrongdoer; but the rude village lad, John Bunyan, suffered for two years agonies of remorse for what he feared was the unpardonable wickedness of his boyhood. At last the light burst upon him. He believed that the sins of his youth had found forgiveness, and he had but one desire, to preach forgiveness to every one whom he could reach. His trade was that of a tinker, and as he went from place to place, he preached wherever any one would listen. There was little trouble in gathering audiences together; for the untaught villager began to show a vividness of speech, a rude eloquence, which held his hearers as if they were spellbound.

Those were not days when a man might preach what he would. Charles II. looked upon all dissenters as opposed to him. Bunyan had become a *Persecution* dissenter, and it did not occur to him to *cution* conceal his faith or even to preach with less boldness.



JOHN BUNYAN,
1628-1688

He was promptly arrested and thrown into jail. "Will you promise to do no more preaching if you are set free?" the King's officers asked. Outside the jail were his wife and two little daughters, one of them especially dear to him because of her blindness; but Bunyan refused to make the promise. For twelve years he was a prisoner in Bedford Jail, doing whatever work he could get to support his family. At the end of that time he was free for a while, then came a second imprisonment. It was within the walls of the jail that he wrote *The Pilgrim's Progress*, the most perfect allegory ever produced. In this story, or "dream," Christian —no glittering knight, but a plain, every-day citizen —flees from the City of Destruction in quest of the Celestial City. He has many troubles; he falls into the Slough of Despond; he has to go by roaring lions; he encounters Apollyon; he passes through the Valley of Humiliation; he is beaten and persecuted at Vanity Fair; he wanders out of the way and falls into the hands of Giant Despair of Doubting Castle; and he goes tremblingly through the Valley of the Shadow of Death. But his way is not all gloom. He finds friendly entertainment and counsel at the House of the Interpreter; at the house built by the Lord of the Hill he rests "in a large upper chamber, whose window opened toward the sunrising, the name of the chamber was Peace;" he is shown far away the beauties of the Delectable Mountains, which are in Emmanuel's Land; the key of promise opens the way out of Doubting Castle. At last he and his friends stand beside the River of Death, which alone lies between them and the Celestial City; and when they have passed through the flood, behold two Shining

The Pilgrim's Progress.
1678.

Ones are beside them to help them up the hill to the City whose foundation is higher than the clouds. A heavenly host comes out to meet them and gives them ten thousand welcomes. "Call at the gate," bid the Shining Ones, and the King commands that it shall be opened unto them. They go in, and all the bells of the City ring for joy. The dreamer looked in after them and he says, "The City shone like the sun; the streets also were paved with gold, and in them walked many men with crowns on their heads, palms in their hands, and golden harps to sing praises withal. . . . And after that they shut up the gates; which, when I had seen, I wished myself among them."

The Pilgrim's Progress is a wonderful book. It is the result of a thorough knowledge of the Bible, sincere religious feeling, and a glowing imagination that made real and tangible whatever thought it touched. No other writer could safely venture to name his characters Faithful or Pliable or Ignorance; but Bunyan makes these abstractions real. Faithful has other qualities than faithfulness, and he talks with Christian not like a shadow, but like a real human being. When Christian fights with Apollyon, there is no strife of phantoms, but a veritable contest, wherein Apollyon gave him a fall and would have pressed him to death had not Christian by good fortune succeeded in catching his sword and giving him a deadly thrust. The English of the book is pure and strong; but its great power lies neither in its English nor in the perfection of the allegory, but in the fact that in picturing his own religious struggles, Bunyan pictured those of many another man. "Look in thy heart and write," said Philip Sidney. One hundred years later,

the unlettered tinker in Bedford Jail obeyed unconsciously the behest of the heir of the richest culture that England could give, and sent forth a masterpiece. Bunyan wrote several other books, all of value, but none equal to *The Pilgrim's Progress*. After his release from prison and to the end of his life he devoted himself to the preaching that he loved.

John Dryden, 1631-1700. Neither Bunyan nor Milton wrote with any thought of pleasing the age in which he lived. Bunyan says explicitly,

Nor did I undertake
Thereby to please my neighbour; no, not I.
I did it mine own self to gratify.

Milton surely had no preference of his own age in mind when he spent his last years on a work which he had little reason to think would find many readers among his contemporaries. The most important writer of the closing years of the century was their opposite in this respect. His name was John Dryden. He was born in 1631, of a Puritan family. Up to 1660 he wrote nothing that attracted any attention except a eulogy of Cromwell, but in that year he produced a glowing welcome to Charles II., wherein he declared that

For his long absence Church and State did groan.

We owe much to Dryden, but his name would be even greater if he had not deliberately made up his mind to please the age in which he lived, and which, unfortunately, was an age of neither good morals nor good manners. The theatres, closed in 1642, were now flung open, and there was a call for plays. **The drama of the Restoration.** Many were written, but they were of quite different character from the plays of the sixteenth century. The Shakespearian inspiration had

vanished, and the French desire for polish and carefulness of form now held sway. If the hero of a play was in circumstances that would naturally arouse deep feeling, the writer was expected to polish every phrase, but whether the speech sounded sincere was a matter of small moment. Indeed, it was regarded as in much better taste to repress all genuine emotion. This was enough to make a play cold and unreal; but another popular demand was still more destructive of a really great dramatic period, namely, that the plays should imitate the indecent manners of the court. A successful play, then, was required to be polished in form, gay and witty, but cold, and often vulgar and profane. Dryden yielded to this demand, especially in his comedies, but he was otherwise honest in his work, for he wrote carefully and thoughtfully. No other dramatic poet of the age was his equal; and, indeed, about whatever he wrote there was a certain strength and power that won attention and respect.



JOHN DRYDEN.

1631-1700

Dryden was careful to choose popular themes. He wrote a poem on current events, namely, the Great Fire of London, the Plague, and the War with the Dutch; not poetical subjects by any means, but subjects in which every one was interested and which afforded good oppor-

Dryden's
choice of
subjects.

tunity for lines that would win applause, such as the following, which says that the English seaman—

Adds his heart to every gun he fires.

Life began to move easily and pleasantly with Dryden. He was favoured by the king; his company was sought by men of rank, he was comfortable financially. His next step was to write satire. The country was full of plot and intrigue. Whoever wished to stand well with the king and his party must do his best to support them. Then it was that Dryden wrote his

*Absalom
and Achitophel.*
1681.

most famous satire, *Absalom and Achitophel*. In this there is a kind of character-reading that is quite different from Shakespeare's. Shakespeare was interested in all kinds of people and understood them because he sympathized with them. Dryden's aim in his satire was not to understand and sympathize, but to pick out the weakest points of his victims, to sting and to hurt. One man he described as

Stiff in opinions, always in the wrong,
Was everything by starts and nothing long,
But in the course of one revolving moon
Was chymist, fiddler, statesman, and buffoon.

Dryden was ready to undertake any kind of literary work that was demanded by the times, and in the midst of his satires he wrote the *Religio Laici*, or

*Religio
Laici.*
1683.

"religion of a layman," and here he deserves honest praise. This poem is an argument in favour of the Church of England. To express difficult arguments in verse is not easy, but Dryden has succeeded. His poem is clear and natural in its wording, smooth, dignified, and easy to read.

Shall I speak plain, and in a nation free
Assume an honest layman's liberty?

I think, according to my little skill,
 To my own mother Church submitting still,
 That many have been saved, and many may,
 Who never heard this question brought in play.
 The unlettered Christian, who believes in gross,
 Plods on to Heaven and ne'er is at a loss ;
 For the strait gate would be made straiter yet,
 Were none admitted there but men of wit.

Only a few years later Dryden became a member of the Roman Catholic Church and wrote *The Hind and the Panther*, wherein the milk-white hind represents the Church of Rome ; the panther, beautiful but spotted, the church he had abandoned. Dryden could write witty lines, but his sense of humour was not strong enough to save him from the absurdity of setting two of the beasts of the field into theological argument. Still, here were the same excellencies as in the *Religio Laici*, the same grace and vigour. The poem deserved applause and won it.

Dryden translated the *Æneid* and other works. He wrote two beautiful odes for St Cecilia's Day. In the second, known as *Alexander's Feast*, are many lines of the sort that stay in the memory, such as :

None but the brave deserves the fair.

Sweet is pleasure after pain.

War, he sung, is toil and trouble ;

Honour but an empty bubble.

*Alexander's
 Feast,*
 1697.

Dryden's prose is of great value because of its clear, bracing style and general excellence. He wrote much criticism, not only in his *Essay of Dramatic Poesy*, but in the prefaces to his various plays ; and criticism, apart from stray paragraphs, was something almost new in English

*Essay of
 Dramatic
 Poesy.*
 1668.

literature. His sentences have not the majestic sonorousness of Milton's, but every phrase has its work to do and is placed where it can do that work best. In the hands of Dryden prose became a keen-edged instrument.

About this time another branch of prose—the homely, intimate prose of the diarist—was brought to perfection, and it is from the Diaries of John Evelyn and Samuel Pepys that the inspiration has been derived that has guided the pens of so many memoir writers and authors of autobiographies in succeeding times.

John Evelyn, 1620-1706, was the son of a country gentleman of Surrey. He was an ardent Royalist, and after his term at Oxford joined the king's army, only to leave it, however, in three days for fear lest he should be "expos'd to ruine, without any advantage to his Majestie." When Charles II. came to the throne in 1660 Evelyn attached himself to the Court, and soon became quite an important person. He was one of the originators and first members of the Royal Society (founded in November, 1660), a Commissioner of the Privy Seal, and Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital. He wrote many learned books that have been long since forgotten, and a Diary that it may safely be said never will be forgotten.

This Diary covers some seventy years of our history, and was continued almost to Evelyn's death. It was not written for the public eye, and it was long before the public saw it, for it did not appear in print until 1818. It contains not only accounts of all the happenings of importance of the day, but also a minutely painted picture of the manners and customs of the period. In its pages we can see how the ladies and gentlemen around John Evelyn lived, how they talked, what they wore, and even what they ate:

we can read first-hand accounts of the Merry Monarch and of his no less merry ladies, the fair Nell Gwynn and the Duchess of Cleveland. In 1666 he tells us the full story of the Great Fire of London, and in 1685 gives us an account of the death and attainments of his nineteen-year-old daughter, Mary Evelyn, that is heartrending in its very simplicity.

But in intimate discussion—or perhaps we should say dissection—of *himself* John Evelyn was surpassed by his lively contemporary, Pepys.

Samuel Pepys, 1633-1703, was the son of a London tailor, and was educated at St Paul's School and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1660, through the good offices of his cousin, Sir Edward Montagu (afterwards Earl of Sandwich), he was appointed Clerk of the King's Ships, and in 1686 became Secretary to the Admiralty, a position that he held till 1688 when the flight of James II., and the arrival of William III., brought about a change of government that was unfavourable to his party.

Pepys was an efficient public servant, but it is on his extraordinarily frank Diary that his fame rests. From New Year's Day 1660 to May 29th 1669 he jotted down in a curious kind of shorthand that he himself had invented everything that happened to him, everything that happened to his wife (so far as he knew it), and all his most trivial thoughts. Never before or since has anyone put on paper such a complete and candid record of himself, and why Pepys should have done so must ever remain a mystery. As in the case of Evelyn it was many years before this Diary saw the light, for it was not published until 1825; but since then, as a writer has well put it, "its worth, historical, social, and personal, has been

universally recognized, and the very folly and self-complacency of the diarist give its reality something of the amusing charm which delights in such fictitious characters as Shakespeare's Justice Shallow."

Pepys died at Clapham in 1703 in poor circumstances; he had given up his diary many years before on account of his failing eyesight, but for long after he retired from the Admiralty he was consulted on matters connected with the Navy, and was held in great respect by all who knew him: Evelyn outlived him by three years, and died at Wotton where his tombstone records that he had learnt from the age of extraordinary events and revolutions in which he had lived that "all is vanity which is not honest, and that there is no solid wisdom but in real piety."

The year 1700 is marked by the death of Dryden, the critic, dramatist, and satirist. The seventeenth century had seen the noblest imaginative work of Shakespeare; the thoughtfulness for form of Ben Jonson; the accurate reasoning of Bacon; the gay trivialities, sometimes touched with seriousness, of the Cavalier poets; the tender grace of Walton; the earnestness, aspiration, and devotion of the writers of religious prose and poetry; the majesty of *Paradise Lost*; the spiritual symbolism of *The Pilgrim's Progress*; the perfection of memoir writing, and now, last of all, had come John Dryden, who stood in the story of the century for the development of critical judgment. The glow of the Elizabethan inspiration had long since passed away. Looking forward to the eighteenth century, one could not hope to find a great imaginative poetry or a marked originality, but one could justly expect an unusual development of literary moderation and correctness.

CHAPTER IX

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

THE AGE OF ANNE

Coffee drinking. Coffee drinking had a great deal to do with the development of literature in the eighteenth century. Some twenty years after Jonson's death, coffee became the fashionable drink, and coffee-houses were opened by the hundred. These houses served the purpose of informal inexpensive clubs; and gradually one became noted as the head-quarters for political discussion, another for social gossip, another for shipping news, etc. "Will's" became the special meeting-place for literary men. Dryden was their chief, and around him circled several of those writers who were to do the best literary work of the early part of the eighteenth century.

Not long before Dryden's death, a boy of twelve slipped into the edge of the circle and stood gazing at the great man with dark, earnest eyes; for Dryden was the poet whom he most revered and admired. The boy was very small, he was badly deformed, and so helpless that he could not stand without supports; but his mind was wonderfully active, and he hoped to be able some day to write poems that would make him famous. He had already made some attempts that were amazingly good for a child.

Alexander Pope, 1688-1744. This boy's name was Alexander Pope. His father was a retired merchant who was exceedingly proud of his precocious son, while his mother looked upon him as the most marvellous boy that ever lived. The family were Roman Catholics, and therefore he would not have



ALEXANDER POPE,
1688-1744

been allowed to enter either of the universities even if he had been well; but he did a vast amount of reading and studying, though with very little formal instruction. Before he was twenty-one he had published several poems, he was well known among the literary men of the time and associated with them upon equal terms. A dramatist four times his age had asked him for sugges-

tions and criticisms. One suggestion which had come to him from William Walsh, a critic of the day, became the motto of his literary life. "Be correct," said Walsh, "we have had great poets, but never one great poet that was correct." Pope set to work to be correct. He wrote and rewrote and polished and condensed and refined.

Essay on Criticism. In 1711, when he was only twenty-three, his *Essay on Criticism* came out. There is little originality in the poem; it is mainly a combination of what Latin and French critics had said; but the thoughts are so clearly and concisely put that they seem new and fresh. For instance, there is no startling novelty in the statement that it

is not well to use either obsolete words or recently formed, unauthorized-words ; but when Pope writes that

In words, as fashions, the same rule will hold ;
Alike fantastic, if too new or old :
Be not the first by whom the new are try'd,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside,

we have a feeling that this is a most excellent way to express the thought. This feeling was what gave special pleasure to the men of Queen Anne's day. Each separate thought of Pope's stands out like a crystal, and this clean-cut definiteness gave the people of his time the enjoyment that Shakespeare's perfect reading of men and his glowing imagination has given the people of all time.

Pope's next subject was even better suited to his talents. With the somewhat rough and ready manners of the age, a certain man of fashion had cut from the head of a maid of honour one of the

Two locks which graceful hung behind
In equal curls, and well conspired to deck
With shining ringlets the smooth iv'ry neck.

The young lady was angry, and her family were angry. It was suggested to Pope that a mock-heroic poem about the deed might help to pass the matter off with a laugh. This was the origin of *The Rape of the Lock*, one of the gayest, most sparkling poems ever written. Pope begins with a parody on the usual way of commencing an epic, and this comical air of importance is carried through the whole poem. The coming of the maid to adorn the heroine is expressed :

*The Rape
of the
Lock. 1712.*

Th' inferior priestess, at her altar's side,
Trembling begins the sacred rites of pride.

The adventurous baron resolves to gain the curl, and builds to Love an altar consisting of billets-doux, a glove, and gilt-edged French romances. The "fays, fairies, genii, elves, and demons" are propitious, and he sets out. He arms himself with a "little engine," a "two-edged weapon," that is, a pair of scissors.

The meeting points the sacred hair dis sever
From the fair head, for ever and for ever !

A mimic war ensues and the lock vanishes. It takes its place among the stars and "adds new glory to the shining sphere."

Pope's next work was not a mock epic but a real epic, for he translated the *Iliad*; later, and with considerable assistance, the *Odyssey*, though his work can hardly be called a translation, for he knew very little Greek. It is rather a versification of the rendering of others. It is smooth, clear, and easy to read, but has not a touch of the old Greek simplicity or fire. Homer's *Iliad* comes from the wind-swept plain of Troy and the shore of the thundering sea; Pope's *Iliad* from a nicely trimmed garden. Nevertheless, gardens are not to be despised, and Pope's verses have the rare charm of a most exquisite finish and perfectness. Homer wrote, "The stars about the bright moon shine clear to see." Pope puts it:

The moon, refulgent lamp of night !
O'er heaven's clear azure spreads her sacred light.

Around her throne the vivid planets roll,
And stars unnumber'd gild the glowing pole.

It is no wonder that Richard Bentley, one of the greatest scholars of the day, said, "It is a pretty poem, Mr Pope, but you must not call it Homer."

With the publication of these two works came not only fame but money. Pope made himself a home at Twickenham on the Thames, and with his widowed mother he spent there the rest of his life. He knew "everybody who was worth knowing," he was famous, and he was rich; on the other hand he was such a sufferer that he spoke of his life as "one long disease." To his mother he was tenderness itself, and he was capable of a warm friendship, though one could not always count on its continuance; but to his enemies he was indeed just what they nicknamed him, "the wicked wasp of Twickenham," for he never hesitated to revenge in the most venomous verses any real or fancied slight. Even in *The Rape of the Lock* there are many scathing lines. At the severing of the curl the heroine cries out, and Pope says with an undertone of bitterness,

Not louder shrieks to pitying heav'n are cast,
When husbands, or when lap-dogs breathe their last;
Or when rich China vessels, fall'n from high,
In glitt'ring dust, and painted fragments lie!

In 1728 Pope published a most malicious satire, *The Dunciad*, wherein every one who was so unfortunate as wittingly or unwittingly to have offended him was scourged most unmercifully, for he had forgotten his own words, "At every trifle scorn to take offence." Pope was the first literary man of his age, and he descended from his throne to chastise with his own hand every one who had not shown him due reverence. Men to whom he owed profound gratitude, but who had offended him in some trifle, and men who had been dead for years were

The
Dunciad.
1728.

attacked with equal spitefulness. Never was so great ability applied to so contemptible an object.

Pope's Later Years. The best work of Pope's later years was the *Essay on Man*, one of his *Moral Essays*. Didactic poetry can never have the winsome charm of imaginative; but whatever power to please the former may possess is shown in these *Essays*. There are scores of single lines and couplets that are as familiar as proverbs.

Essay
on Man.
1733.

Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow.

An honest man's the noblest work of God.

Order is heaven's first law.

Man never is, but always to be blest.

And spite of pride, in erring reason's spite,

One truth is clear, Whatever is, is right.

Pope has given us the perfection of form and finish; but when we ask for "thoughts that breathe and words that burn," for thoughts so far beyond our own that we must bow in homage, they are lacking. Lofty imagination, sympathetic insight, originality, depth, we do not find. Pope is great, but—except in his marvellous power of crystallizing the best thoughts and truths of the ages, and so bringing them home to men's bosoms—he is not of the greatest.

Addison and Steele. When Pope was a boy of twelve, there was living in a London garret a man of twenty-eight who was destined to become the best prose writer of Queen Anne's reign. He was dignified, reserved with strangers, and a little shy; but his ability to write had been so apparent that some time before this the Whigs had given him a pension of £300. This was not an infrequent act when the party in power wished to secure the adherence of a talented

young writer. However, the king soon died, the Whigs were "out," and the young man, Joseph Addison, was left without resources. While he was living quietly in London, news came of the victory of Blenheim, and for perhaps the only time in the history of England, the government set out in quest of a poet. A friend recommended Addison, and he wrote a poem on the battle. One passage compared Marlborough to an angel who—

Pleased the Almighty's orders to perform,
Rides on the whirlwind and directs the storm.

These lines carried their author far on the road to success. One office after another was given to him, and the more he was known, the better he was liked. It

was not easy to know him, for although with his friends he was the best companion in the world, the entrance of a stranger would silence him in a moment. Nevertheless, his kindness of heart could not be hidden, and this politician who could not make a speech was so warmly loved in Ireland, where he held a government position, that Dean Swift in writing to him said that the Tories and the Whigs were contending which should speak best of him.

While he was in Ireland a letter came to him from an old school friend, Richard Steele, which opened the way to a greater than political glory, though possibly



JOSEPH ADDISON,
1672-1719

when Addison read the letter, he only smiled and said to himself, "What will Dick do next!"

Richard
Steele
1672 1729.

"Dick" was one of Addison's worshippers. He had been a cheerful, warm-hearted boy, always getting into trouble, but so lovable that some one was usually ready to come to the rescue; and now



SIR RICHARD STEELE,
1672-1729

that he was a man, he had changed very little. He was married, but his "dearest Prue," his "prettiest woman," sometimes lived in luxury and sometimes was hard put to it to live at all in a house where food and fuel were so much a matter of chance. Steele had written some plays which were rather dull; and he had written a religious book which gave him considerable trouble, for his friends were always ex-

pecting him, he complained, to live up to his writings. Plainly, however, his mind turned toward literature, and as a reward for some pamphlets that he had produced, the position of *Gazetteer* had been given him, that is, the charge of the small sheet which published government news.

The Tatler, 1709-1711. These gazettes were exceedingly dull, and it occurred to Steele that to publish a small paper containing not only the news but a little interesting reading matter might be a successful undertaking. This paper was the famous *Tatler*, and it was of this that he wrote to Addison with so much enthusiasm. It was already well

established, and instead of only being sent to the country by the tri-weekly post, as Steele had expected, it had been caught up by the London folk with the greatest eagerness. Its popularity was no marvel, for it was bright and entertaining. Steele wrote according to his mood; at one time a serious little sermon on ranking people according to their real merits and not according to their riches or honours; at another time a criticism of the theatre; at another, a half-jesting, half-earnest page on giving testimonials. This playful manner of saying serious things, with its opportunities for humour and pathos and character drawing, was exactly the mode of writing adapted to Addison, though he had never discovered it—no great wonder, for this sort of essay was something entirely new. Bacon wrote "essays," but with him the word meant simply a preliminary sketch of a subject as opposed to a finished treatise. These light, graceful chats on politics, manners, literature, and art were meant for the day only, but they were so well done that they have become classics.

Suddenly Steele announced that the *Tatler* had come to its end. One reason that he gave for its discontinuance was that the previous numbers would make four volumes! He published them in book form with a whimsical and generous little acknowledgment of the help that he had received from Addison. "This good Office he performed with such Force of Genius, Humour, Wit, and Learning, that I fared like a distressed Prince, who calls in a powerful Neighbour to his Aid; I was undone by my Auxiliary; when I had once called him in, I could not subsist without Dependance on him."

The *Spectator*, 1711-1712. The *Tatler* had run for nearly two years. Two months after its closing number appeared, Steele and Addison united in publishing the *Spectator*, which came out every day but Sunday. This is even more famous than Sir Roger de Coverley, the *Tatler*, and its fame is due chiefly to "Sir Roger de Coverley," a character introduced by Steele and continued by Addison. Sir Roger is drawn as having been a gay young man of the town; but at the time of his appearance in the *Spectator* he is a middle-aged country gentleman, hale and hearty, loved by every one, believing himself to be the sternest of quarter-session justices, but in reality the softest-hearted man that ever sat on the bench. His servants and his tenants all love him. He has a chaplain whom he has chosen for good sense and understanding of backgammon, rather than for learning, as he did not wish to be "insulted with Latin and Greek" at his own table.

All through these essays there is kindly humour, vivacity, and originality; and all is expressed with exquisite simplicity and clearness in a style so perfectly suited to the thought that the reader often forgets to notice its excellence. The subjects, as in the *Tatler*, were anything and everything, and the essays themselves were the chat of refined, intelligent people; they were a kind of ideal coffee-house "extension."

Addison's other work. The *Spectator* came to an end as suddenly as the *Tatler*. A third paper, the *Guardian*, was begun after a short time; but between these two Addison brought out his *Cato*. It was a perfectly well-bred play,—dignified and cold. The *Spectator* represented

Cato.
1713.

Addison with his friends; *Cato* represented Addison with strangers. But most unreasonably, this rather uninteresting drama was a distinct success; for both Tories and Whigs claimed to be described in its fine speeches, and every one wanted to see it. Addison probably thought it far superior to his essays; but neither that nor any other poetical work of his is of special value, except a few of his ^{Hymns.} hymns. Addison's religion was sincere, and gave to his pen the inspiration which the theatre failed to furnish. His paraphrase of the twenty-third psalm, "The Lord my pasture shall prepare," is excellent; but in "The spacious firmament on high" there is a certain majesty and breadth that has rarely been excelled. He became under-secretary of state, but died when only forty-seven years of age. Merry Dick Steele became Sir Richard on the accession of George I. Before he was sixty, his health failed and he retired to the country. There is a tradition that in the feebleness of his last months he insisted on being carried out to see the villagers dance on the green and to give them prizes.

Jonathan Swift, 1667-1745. There were two men of the time of Queen Anne whose names are familiar to-day chiefly because each wrote a book that children like. The name of the first was Jonathan Swift, that of the second was Daniel Defoe. The first time that Addison saw Swift was at a coffee-house. A tall stranger in the garb of a clergyman stalked into the room, laid his hat on a table, and began to stride back and forth. After half an hour he paid the usual penny at the bar and walked away. This was the eccentric clergyman who had come from his home in Ireland to make a visit to England. He had been

secretary to Sir William Temple, and he had written a book called the *Tale of a Tub*. This is an allegory wherein a dying father gives his sons Peter, Martin, and Jack (that is, the Church of Rome, the Lutherans, and the Calvinists) each a coat which will last throughout their lives if kept clean. The book describes the comical and sometimes unseemly acts of the three. Swift showed great ability to write clear, strong prose; but he used coarse mockery, reckless audacity, and cynical scorn, such unfit weapons for religious discussion that the clergyman author should have given up all hope of advancement in the church. His book, however, was so brilliant a satire that it gave



JONATHAN SWIFT,
1667-1745

him at once high rank as a wielder of the pen.

In 1704, the year of the publication of the *Tale of a Tub*, he also brought out the *Battle of the Books*.

This had been written some time before to help Sir William Temple out of an embarrassing situation. Sir William had written an essay claiming that ancient literature was superior to modern, and had praised particularly a work which was soon afterward shown to be a modern forgery. The secretary dashed into the fray, treating the dispute with a sarcastic seriousness which soon became coarse and savage.

Swift had charge of a tiny parish not far from

The Tale
of a Tub
1704.

The Battle
of the
Books.
1704.

Dublin, but he went often to England, sometimes remaining several years. He wrote political pamphlets whose malignant ridicule delighted his politician friends. He cared little for money or for fame, but he longed for political power; and when he saw it dropped lightly into the hands of men who had not half his talents, he felt a savage scorn of those who would give authority so easily to men who held it so unworthily. He hoped to be given an English bishopric, but in view of the wrath which his *Tale of a Tub* had aroused, the utmost that his friends ventured to do was to make him Dean of St Patrick's Cathedral in Dublin. Each piece of satire that Swift produced seemed more savage than that which had preceded it. One of the most bitter is his *Modest Proposal*, which suggested that the children of poor Irish parents should be served for food on the tables of the landlords, who, he says, "as they have already devoured most of the parents, seem to have the best title to the children." The cold, business-like method by which he arranges the details of his plan is as horrible as it is powerful. *Gulliver's Travels* was written as a satire, and expressed his hatred and scorn of men perhaps more fiercely than any other of his writings; but "Gulliver's" journeys to Lilliput and Brobdingnag are, forgetting the allegory and leaving out the occasional coarseness, most charming stories for children. Nothing could be more minutely accurate than his description of the little people of Lilliput, who are barely six inches high. They bring him a hogshead of wine, which holds just half a pint. They ascertain his height by the aid of a quadrant, and, finding its relation to theirs, they decide that

A Modest
Proposal.
1729.

Gulliver's
Travels.
1726.

he needs exactly 1724 times as much food as one of themselves. Swift makes no slip. From beginning to end, everything is consistent with the country of six-inch people. In Brobdingnag, matters are reversed, for Brobdingnag is a land of giants where Gulliver has a terrible encounter with a rat of the size of a large mastiff, has to swim for his life in a vast bowl of cream, and comes nearest to death when a year-old baby tries to cram him into its mouth. So perfectly is the illusion carried out that the hero is represented on his return to his own country as stooping to enter his house because the door seems to him so dangerously low.

If it were not for chance words and for Swift's letters, we should think of him as half-mad with hatred and scorn; but two men as unlike as Character of Swift. Pope and Addison cherished his friendship. Pope wrote that he loved and esteemed him, and Addison dedicated a book to him as "the most agreeable companion, the truest friend, and the greatest genius of his age." Somewhere in his nature there was a charm which held both the "wicked wasp of Twickenham" and the gentle, ever courteous Addison. Letters to "Stella." His letters, too, written to "Stella," his pet name for a young girl whom he knew and taught at Sir William Temple's, are frankly affectionate; and even as she grew to mature womanhood, he still reported to her all the chat of the day and the little happenings to himself in which he knew she would be interested.

Be you lords or be you earls,
You must write to naughty girls,

he wrote to her. In 1728 Stella died, and this hater of his race and lover of individuals sorrowfully held

for an hour the unopened letter that he knew announced her death. There was from the first a wild strain of insanity in this many-sided man, and for several years before his death his mind failed. He died in 1745.

Daniel Defoe, 1661 ?-1731. Swift would have looked upon it as the very irony of fate if he had known that his most bitter satire had become a book for children ; but Daniel Defoe would have been pleased, though perhaps a little amused, to find that his *Robinson Crusoe*, which he published as a real account of a real man, had become not only a children's book but a work of the imagination. Defoe was educated to be a non-conformist clergyman, but he was little adapted to the profession. He was like Steele in his proneness to get into scrapes, but unlike Steele, he could usually find a way out. When "King Monmouth" made his attempt to gain the throne, Defoe was one of his adherents ; but in some way he escaped punishment, and afterwards became a strong supporter of William and Mary. He soon showed that he could write most forcible English, and his *Shortest Way with the Dissenters* proved him almost as much of a satirist as Swift himself. There is a vast difference, however, in the satire of the two men ; for Defoe shows nothing of Swift's hatred of his race ; and, earnest as he makes himself appear in his pamphlets, we always think of him as smiling wickedly over his pen to think how well he was befooling his readers. In this pamphlet he succeeded almost too well. He suggested that an excellent means of securing religious uniformity would be to hang dissenting ministers and banish their people. It was a time of severe laws and stern retribution, and the Dissenters were actually alarmed.

The
Shortest
Way with
the Dis-
senter.
1702.

Moreover, Parliament, too, persisted in taking the matter seriously, declared the pamphlet a libel on the English nation, and condemned its author to stand in the pillory. Most men would have been somewhat troubled, but Defoe and his pen were equal to the occasion ; and while in prison awaiting his punishment, he wrote a *Hymn to the Pillory*, which he called a state machine for punishing fancy. He closed with a message to his judges,—

Tell them : The men that placed him here
Are scandals to the Times !
Are at a loss to find his guilt,
And can't commit his crimes !

Defoe carried the day. He stood in the pillory ; but flowers were heaped around him, he was cheered by crowds of admiring bystanders, and thousands of copies of his *Hymn* were sold.

Defoe was the most inventive, original man of his age, and he even published an *Essay on Projects*, suggesting all sorts of new things. Among them was his plan for giving to women the education which was then limited to men. He said, " If knowledge and understanding had been useless additions to the sex, God Almighty would never have given them capacities ; for he made nothing useless." Strikingly similar to these words of Defoe is the statement of Matthew Vassar a century and a half later in founding the first college for women in the United States : " It occurred to me that woman, having received from her Creator the same intellectual constitution as man, has the same right as man to intellectual culture and development."

One of Defoe's projects came to more fame and importance than he dreamed. Every one was inter-

ested in a sailor named Alexander Selkirk who had been abandoned on the island of Juan Fernandez, and who, after five years of loneliness, had been rescued and brought to England. Defoe went with the rest of the world to see the man and talk with him ; but while others soon forgot his story, Defoe remembered, and a few years later he wrote *Robinson Crusoe*, an account of a man who was wrecked on a desert island with nothing except a knife, a pipe, a little tobacco in a box, and a hope of getting some articles from the wreck of the vessel. This book became a favourite at once. It was so realistic that every reader fancied himself in the sailor's place and planned with him what to do for safety and comfort. This is just where Defoe's unique power lies, in putting himself in the place of his characters. In *Robinson*

*Robinson
Crusoe.*
1719.



DANIEL DEFOE,
1661?-1731

Crusoe he imagined himself on the island and thought how he could get to the vessel, for instance, and how he should feel if he found a footprint on the sand when he supposed that he was entirely alone. Having fancied what he should do, it was easy to put his thoughts into clear, simple English, never forgetting that his aim was to tell a story, not to ornament phrases. The book was so successful that Defoe

wrote a continuation of the adventures of his hero. It was very like him to insert an aggrieved little preface, taking high moral grounds against the "envious people" who had called his work a romance, and saying that doing such deeds was "a Practice all honest Men abhor."

Three years after *Robinson Crusoe* appeared, Defoe produced his *Journal of the Plague Year*, which was A Journal of the Plague Year. 1722. written, the title-page gravely asserts, "by a citizen who continued all the while in London." This was literally true, although the aforesaid citizen was but four or five years old at the time of the visitation. The book describes minutely all the details of the terrible season, from the piteous "Lord, have mercy upon us!" written on the houses to the coming of the horrible dead cart that sometimes carried away the dying with the dead. It is most impressive, and has more than once been quoted as authority on the events of the pestilence. Defoe wrote several picaresque stories, or stories having rascals for heroes, each tale expected, according to the preface of the author, to bring any wicked reader to repentance.

CHAPTER X

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

LITERATURE UNDER THE GEORGES

Last Years of Queen Anne. The novel. Taking a general view of the Age of Queen Anne, we see that it was marked, first, by the development of literary criticism ; and, second, by the excellence of its prose and the beginning of the periodical. In poetry especially certain principles were tacitly adopted as producing the correctness which the age demanded. The five-beat line of Dryden and Pope, with the thought neatly enclosed within a well-polished rhymed couplet, became the generally accepted ideal of perfection. This did not tend to a free manifestation of poetical ability ; but it did tend to produce prose so accurate, graceful, and agreeable as to become the glory of the Age of Anne. Its best manifestation was in the periodicals whose establishment was the second distinguishing mark of the age. They had been preceded by newspapers ; but the *Tatler* and the *Spectator* were not bare chronicles of events, they were not the controversial weeklies of the Civil War, they were real literature, and their prose had not only usefulness but beauty.

Prose was soon to discover a new field, the novel. There had been Elizabethan romances, *The Pilgrim's Progress*, Dryden's translations, and the slender thread of narrative fiction in the *Spectator*. Then had come

Robinson Crusoe, which, like *The Pilgrim's Progress*, was artistic enough to satisfy the most critical and simple enough to delight the most ignorant. The

The novel. next step was the novel, that is, the story which pictures real life and deals with the passions, especially that of love. The novel must have a plot, it must have prominent and secondary characters; and, just as in a play, these characters must act naturally and must change as they are acted upon by incidents or by other characters.

Samuel Richardson, 1689-1761. The first book that fully answered these requirements was written by Samuel Richardson, a successful middle-aged printer. He had never written a book, but he had written letters by the score, and had written them so well that someone suggested his publishing a series of letters about everyday home life to serve as models for those who lacked his ability. The idea struck Richardson favourably, and it occurred to him



SAMUEL RICHARDSON,
1689-1761

that the interest would be increased if there were some thread of connexion between the letters. The result was *Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded*, the first true English novel. It came out in 1740, declaring on its title-page that its object was "to cultivate the Principles of Virtue and Religion". Pamela Andrews is a friendless young woman who is persecuted by the attentions of a fashionable

reprobate. Finally, after being converted to honour and uprightness by her virtue, he offers her marriage, and she accepts him. The story goes on, volume after volume; but the fiction-hungry people of 1740 were sorry when it came to an end.

Henry Fielding, 1707-1754. Everybody was interested in *Pamela*, but a writer of comic plays named Henry Fielding was not only interested but amused; for the sentimentality of the book and its rather patronizing tone of giving good moral advice struck him as being ludicrous. Straightway he seized his pen and began in caricature *Joseph Andrews*. Joseph is Pamela's brother, and he is as much tormented by the devotion of a certain widow as was Pamela by the attentions of her persecutor. Fielding had more ability to make his characters seem real than Richardson, but he was not the superior of the publisher in delicate strokes and careful attention to details.

Within thirteen years after the appearance of *Pamela*, Richardson wrote two more novels, *Sir Charles Grandison* and his best work, *Clarissa*, often, though wrongly, called *Clarissa Harlowe*. There were eight volumes of *Clarissa*, and after the appearance of the first four, Richardson was besieged by letters without number, telling him how their writer had wept over his pathos, and beseeching him to give the story a happy ending. Fielding, too, produced other novels, and of these, *Tom Jones* is his best work. Fielding is strong and robust. His novels are as breezy as if they had been written by a mountain-top and a fire to life. In the end, however, he had to concede the very best of a life to his competitors. Unfortunately, they are well as all the rest of the

Joseph
Andrews
1742

Clarissa
Harlowe
1748

Tom
Jones
1749

time, are marked, in varying degree, by what seems to the present age a revolting coarseness.

Tobias Smollett, 1721-1771. Two other novelists were soon added to the company, Tobias George Smollett and Laurence Sterne. Smollett studied medicine and went to sea as a ship's doctor, but his real interest was in literature, and in 1748 he wrote *Roderick Random*, which pictures many scenes from his own life, with here and there a bit of tenderness or whimsicality. Several other works followed this, animated and interesting, but without Fielding's accurate character drawing.

Laurence Sterne, 1713-1768. Sterne was an Irish clergyman with a good income and an irregular talent.

Tristram Shandy. His three works are as inconsistent as the man himself, for one is a collection of sermons; 1760-1767. one, *Tristram Shandy*, a whimsical delineation of home life with one or two delightful characters; and **The Sentimental Journey.** In this Sterne is sometimes frankly immoral; sometimes he gives us beautiful little descriptions; sometimes his sentiment is ridiculously affected; sometimes he gives such passages as the following meditation on the Bastille:

And as for the Bastille—the terror is in the word.—Make the most of it you can, said I to myself, the Bastille is but another word for a tower;—and a tower is but another word for a house you can't get out of.—Mercy on the gouty! for they are in it twice a year. But with nine livres a day, and pen and ink and paper and patience, albeit a man can't get out, he may do very well within,—at least for a month or six weeks; at the end of which, if he is a harmless fellow, his innocence appears, and he comes out a better and wiser man than he went in.

After thus moralizing himself into satisfaction, suddenly he hears a starling in a cage which has learned to

say the one sentence, "I can't get out." Sterne's mood changes. He writes a glowing address to liberty, pictures one captive and his sorrows, and sends his servant away, "not willing he should see anything upon my cheek which would cost the honest fellow a heartache."

Samuel Johnson, 1709-1784. The decade marked by the beginning of the novel was from 1740 to 1750. The chief place of literary honour during the thirty years following 1750 is given to a man whose essays have not the charming touch of those of Addison and Steele, whose dictionary was antiquated—as a work of reference—long ago, whose principal story is voted dry, whose edition of Shakespeare has been



DR JOHNSON,
1709-1784

long since surpassed, and whose *Lives of the Poets* alone is of any special intrinsic value to-day. This man was Samuel Johnson. He was the sickly, nervous son of a Lichfield bookseller. He made his way to Oxford University, too independent to accept help and too poor to be able to finish his course and take a degree. A few years later, he opened a private school for boys. He was very big and awkward; he rolled from side to side when he walked; he grumbled and muttered, and his face, seamed and scarred by scrofula, trembled

and twitched. The wonder is not that the school was a failure, but that even one pupil ventured to attend it. After the failure Johnson went to London with a capital of twopence half-penny and a partly completed tragedy. His aim was to find literary work; and for some time he did whatever there was to do. After ten years or more of drudgery, he was little richer than at first; but he had become so well

known that several booksellers united in offering him fifteen hundred guineas to prepare a dictionary of the English language. Seven or eight years of hard work passed, and the book was completed. It shows that while its author's knowledge of etymology was of the slightest—but in those days comparatively little was known of that science by any one—its definitions are sometimes exceedingly good, and sometimes based upon the whims of the writer; for instance, he hated the Scotch, and therefore he defined oats as "grain which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people." It was still the feeling in England that a book of such importance should be dedicated to a "patron,"

Johnson's Dictionary. 1755. **Patronage.** who was expected to return the honour by an interest in the work and generous assistance. The plan of the dictionary had been addressed to Lord Chesterfield, and this dainty nobleman at first encouraged its author; but he soon tired of the uncouth scholar, whom he called "a respectable Hottentot, who throws his meat anywhere but down his throat," and was "not at home" to his calls.

When it was known that the dictionary was about to appear, Chesterfield became interested, and hoped, in spite of his neglect, to secure the dedication to himself. He published letters recommending it, but

they were too late. Johnson published in return a reply which was calm and dignified, but so scathing that it practically ended literary patronage save that of the public itself. The book came out. It was infinitely better than anything that preceded it, and it was received with an enthusiasm which in this age of dictionaries can hardly be imagined.

In the course of the seven years that Johnson spent on the dictionary, he published the *Rambler*, a periodical made up of essays written after the fashion of Addison's, but lacking Addison's light touch and graceful humour.

The
Rambler.
1750-1752.

Neither these nor the dictionary added any large amount to the author's finances; and when, in 1759, the death of his mother occurred, he had not money for the funeral expenses. To raise it, he wrote in the evenings of one week, *Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia*. This is usually called

Rasselas,
Prince of
Abyssinia.
1759.

a story, but the characters serve only as mouth-pieces for the various reflections of the author. "Abyssinia" is simply a convenient name for an imaginary "happy valley."

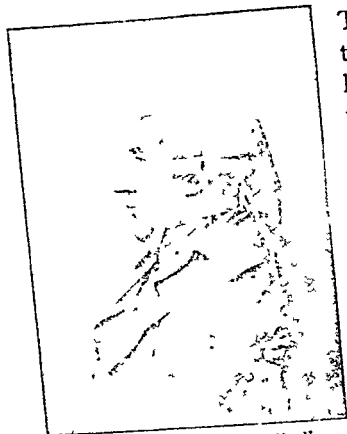
Seven years after the publication of the dictionary the government offered Johnson a pension of £300. Even in his poverty the independent lexicographer hesitated to accept it; and well he might, for in his dictionary he had defined a pension as "pay given to a state hireling for treason to his country"; but he was finally made to see that the offered gift was not a bribe but a reward for what he had already accomplished. He accepted it, and then life became easier.

James Boswell, 1740-1795. It was about this time that he met a Scotsman named Boswell, who became

Johnson's
pension.

his humble worshipper. Wherever Johnson went Boswell followed. Boswell asked all sorts of questions, both useful and idle, just to see what reply

his oracle would make. The great man snubbed the little man, and the little man hastened home to write in his journal what a superb snub it was. Mrs Boswell was not pleased. "I have seen a bear led by a man," she said, "but never before a man led by a bear." Johnson once wrote to her, "The only thing in which I have the honour to agree with you is in loving him"; for the young worshipper had at last won a re-



Photo, Imery Walker

JAMES BOSWELL,
1740-1795

turn of affection from his idol. For twenty years he wrote at night every word that he could remember of Johnson's conversation through the day.

Johnson's
conversa-
tion.

It was well worth noting, for Johnson was the best talker of the age. Now that his pension relieved him of want, he had little inclination to make the effort required by writing, but he was ever ready to talk. Much of his best talking was done at the famous Literary Club, which he, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Edmund Burke founded. He always seemed to feel that literary composition required the use of long words and a ponderous rolling up of phrases: but his conversation was direct

and simple. He argued, he spoke of history, of biography, of literature, or morals. His scholarship, his powerful intellect, and his colloquial powers gave value to whatever he said. When a new book came out, the first question asked by the public was, "What does the Club say of it?" Johnson was the great man of the Club, and for years he was really, as he has so often been called, the literary dictator of England.

Johnson's later work. During the last twenty years of his life he did a comparatively small amount of literary work. He edited Shakespeare, an undertaking for which his slight knowledge of the sixteenth century drama had given him but an ill preparation. He journeyed to Scotland, and was treated so kindly that much of his prejudice against the Scots melted away. His letters about this journey, written to a friend, were easy and natural; but when he made them into a book, *The Journey to the Western Isles of Scotland*, they were translated into the ceremoniously elaborate phraseology which alone he regarded as worthy of print. His best work was his *Lives of the Poets*, a series of sketches prepared for a collection of English poetry. These were intended to be very short, but Johnson became interested in them, and did far more than he had agreed. The result is not only brief "lives" of the authors but criticisms of their writings. These criticisms are not always just, for sometimes Johnson's strong prejudices and sometimes his lack of the power to appreciate certain qualities stood in the way of fairness; but, fair or unfair, they are the honest expression of an independent, powerful

Edition of
Shake-
speare.
1765.

The Jour-
ney to
the West-
ern Isles
of Scot-
land.
1775.

The Lives
of the
Poets.
1779-1781.

and every one is well worth reading. This was Johnson's last work. He died in 1784.

Oliver Goldsmith, 1728-1774. One of Johnson's special friends at the Club was the poet Oliver Goldsmith, a genial, gay-hearted Irishman, a boy all his life. What to do with him was always a puzzling

question to his friends. His bishop would not accept him as a clergyman, either because of his pranks at the university or because of the scarlet breeches which he insisted upon wearing. A devoted uncle sent him to London to study law; but on the way he was beguiled into gambling and did not reach the city. He began to study medicine at Edinburgh; made his way to Leyden for

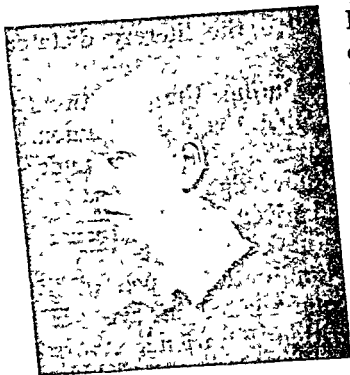


Photo Emery Walker, Ltd.
OLIVER GOLDSMITH.
1728-1774

further instruction; borrowed money to go to Paris, but spent it on rare tulip bulbs for his uncle; and finally set out to travel over the Continent "with but one spare shirt, a flute, and a single guinea." He took a medical degree probably at Padua, went to London, read proof for Richardson, acted as tutor in an academy, wrote children's books—possibly *Goody Two Shoes*. He thought of going to India as a physician, of exploring central Asia, of journeying to Aleppo to study the arts of the East. He had no special longing to become a knight of the quill, but he needed money and he wrote. *Letters from a*

Citizen of the World brought him a small sum; but Goldsmith had no more providence than a sparrow, and soon Johnson, like his early friends in Ireland, began to wonder what to do with "Noll." His careless fashion of living was entirely different from Johnson's sturdy uprightness; but Johnson's heart was big enough to sympathize with him, and when a message came one morning that Goldsmith was in great trouble, Johnson guessed what the matter was and sent him a guinea, following it himself as soon as possible.

Goldsmith had not paid his rent, and his landlady had arrested him. The two men discussed what could be done, and Goldsmith produced the manuscript of a novel ready for the press. Johnson carried it to a bookseller and sold it for £60. This was the manuscript of the *Vicar of Wakefield*; but the publisher did not realize what a prize he had won, and was in no haste to bring the book out. In the meantime, Goldsmith's *Traveller* appeared. Then there was a sensation at the Club; for, save by Johnson, Reynolds, Burke, and perhaps a few others, Goldsmith had been looked upon as a mere literary drudge. He had felt the unspoken contempt, and had been awkward and ill at ease. Now that the Club and the other literary folk of the day declared that the *Traveller* was the best poem that had appeared since the death of Pope, Goldsmith's peculiarities were no longer called awkwardness, but the whims of a man of genius. Then came out the *Vicar of Wakefield* with its ridiculous plot, its delightful humour, its gentleness, its comical situations, and the exquisite grace of style that marked the work of Goldsmith's

Letters
from a
Citizen of
the World.
1762.

The Vicar
of Wake-
field.
1766.

The
Traveller.
1764.

pen, whether poem or novel or history. Again the literary world was delighted; but the £60 received for the manuscript had long ago been spent.

The Good-Natured Man. 1768. His next work was a comedy, *The Good-Natured Man*. This gave him £500; and

straightway he began to live as if he were to have £500 a month. Soon his pockets were empty, and the much praised Dr Goldsmith was again at the beck and call of the booksellers. He wrote history,

The Deserted Village. 1770. natural history, whatever they called for; one thing was as easy as another. In 1770 he wrote *The Deserted Village*. Like almost

all of Pope's work, this is written in the rhymed heroic couplet, but here the resemblance ends. Pope's writings were polished; Goldsmith's were marked by an inimitable natural charm, the charm of a graceful style, of a tenderness and delicate humour of which Pope never dreamed. The idea of the poem is pathetic; but the parts that come to mind oftenest are the sympathetic description of the village pastor who was "passing rich with forty pounds a year," and the picture of the schoolmaster:

In arguing, too, the parson owned his skill,
For, e'en tho' vanquished, he could argue still;
While words of learned length and thundering sound
Amazed the gazing rustics ranged around;
And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew,
That one small head could carry all he knew.

Once more Goldsmith wrote a play, *She Stoops to Conquer*. This was founded upon his own adventures when first possessed of a guinea and a borrowed horse. "Where is the best house in the place?" he had demanded in a strange village with all the airs that he fancied to be the mark

She Stoops to Conquer. 1773.

of an experienced traveller. The home of a wealthy gentleman was mischievously pointed out, and the young fellow rode up to the door, gave his orders right and left, and finally invited his host and family to join him in a bottle of wine. The host had discovered that the consequential youngster was the son of an old friend, and he carried on the mistake till the boy was about to take his leave.

This play was Goldsmith's last work. His income had become sufficient for comfort; but he had no idea how to manage it, and he was always in debt. He died when not yet forty-six years of age, the same careless, generous, lovable boy to the end. His bust was placed in Westminster Abbey by the Club. Johnson wrote the inscription, which said that he "left scarcely any style of writing untouched, and touched nothing that he did not adorn."

Edmund Burke, 1729-1797. This period, already so rich in essays and novels and poetry, was also marked by oratory and history. Its greatest orator was Edmund Burke, an Irishman, who made his way to England and began his literary work by publishing essays about the time when Johnson's *On the Sublime and Beautiful*. Johnson 1756. admired him heartily, and felt that in him he had an opponent worthy of his steel. "That fellow calls forth all my powers," he said. At another time he declared that a stranger could not talk with Burke five minutes in the street without saying to himself, "This is an extraordinary man."

Burke entered Parliament and was one of the most

prominent figures of the House in the stormy days preceding the American Revolution. Then it was that he made his famous *Speech on Conciliation with America*. On the part of the government he was the most prominent

Speech on
Concilia-
tion with
America.
1775.

prosecutor of Warren Hastings for abuse of power in India. The Reign of Terror in France called forth his *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

Reflections
on the
French Re-
volution.
1790.

Burke was not merely a politician; he was a thinker and orator and poet who devoted himself to politics. The thought is always first with him, but in the expression of the thought he is generous in his use of poetical adornment; and yet his adornment is vastly more than a mere decoration. In his *Conciliation*, for instance, no statistics would have given his audience nearly so good an idea of the energy and enterprise of the colonists as his picturesque description of the manner in which they had carried on the whale fishery:

Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits, whilst we are looking for them beneath the Arctic Circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen Serpent of the north.

William Robertson, 1721-1793. The historians of the eighteenth century are represented by William Robertson, David Hume, and Edward Gibbon. Robertson was a Scotch clergyman who wrote of three different countries, *A History of Scotland during the Reigns of Queen Mary and James the Sixth*, in 1759; then *The History of Charles V of Germany*; and finally, *A History of America*.

David Hume, 1711-1776. David Hume was also a Scotsman, a man of such indomitable perseverance that his energy was not conquered even by years of unsuccessful effort. At twenty-three he determined to devote himself to literature. His first book was a failure, but he struggled on with many failures and small success. He was not the kind of man to be discouraged, and with the utmost composure he set to work on a *History of England*. The first volume failed. He wrote a second. That met with little better success. He wrote a third. It was received with some slight interest. He continued, and at last the reading world began to appreciate what he had done. They discovered that whatever was narrated was told vividly, that Hume recognized a great event when he saw it, and took pains to trace not only its effect but the causes which led up to it; and that he was interested not only in great events but in the people and their ways. One fault was common to both Hume and Robertson, or possibly in some degree to their age, a lack of historical accuracy, the most unpardonable fault in a writer of history.

Edward Gibbon, 1737-1794. No such charge can be made against the writings of Edward Gibbon. He was an Englishman with whom, even as a boy, the love of history was a passion. The idea of writing the *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* came to him in Rome in 1764, but the first volume did not appear until 1776. The labour involved in preparing this work was enormous. It was not the simple story of a single people, but a complicated narrative involved with the history of all Europe and not a

History of
England.
1754-1762.

The De-
cline and
Fall of the
Roman
Empire.
1776-1787.

little of Asia. Merely to collect the necessary facts was a gigantic task. It demanded a most powerful intellect to arrange them, and to show their proper connexion; and a remarkable literary ability to present them clearly and attractively. All this Gibbon did, a little ponderously sometimes, but vividly and eloquently. He is by far the greatest of the eighteenth century historians.

New qualities in literature. In the literature of the last quarter of the century certain qualities were seen which were new chiefly in that they were much more strongly manifested than before. First, there was more interest in man simply because he was man, and not because he was rich or of noble birth. The revolution in America and the early part of the revolution in France emphasized the idea that every one, no matter of how lowly a position, possessed rights. Second, there was a genuine love of real nature, not nature made into clipped hedges and gravelled walks. Third, there was a certain impatience of restraint, an unwillingness to accept the conclusions of others. Subjects were chosen that were of personal interest to the author and were therefore treated with warmth of feeling.

Thomas Gray, 1716-1771. These qualities were the more important characteristics of what is known as the Romantic Revival, a revolt against the artificial formality of Pope and his followers. Even while Pope was alive and at the height of his fame, poets in both Scotland and England began to manifest a sincere love for nature and to break away from the rhymed couplet. In 1751, seven years after the death of Pope, a notable poem was produced by Thomas Gray, a quiet, sensitive scholar who spent more than half his life in Cambridge.

Here he wrote his famous *Elegy in a Country Church-yard*. For eight years he kept the *Elegy* by him, adding, taking away, polishing, and refining, until it had become worthy, even in form, to be named among the great poems of the world. Its fame, however, is due less to its polish than, first,

Gray's
Elegy.
1751.

to its genuine interest in the lives of the poor, to its sympathy with their pleasures and realization of their hardships; and, second, to its observation of the little things of nature, the "moping owl," the "droning flight" of the beetle, "the swallow twittering from the straw-built shed." Nature, according to the school of Pope, was rude and perhaps a little vulgar until



THOMAS GRAY,
1716-1771

smoothed and trimmed and made into lawns and gardens. Pope might have brought a swan or a peacock into a poem, but he would hardly have thought it fitting to introduce beetles or swallows, save the swallows that "roost in Nilus' dusty urn." Neither would Pope have thought a ploughman who "homeward plods his weary way" a proper subject for poetry. To Pope a ploughman was simply a part of the world's machinery, and he would no more have written about him than about a bolt or a screw. All Gray's poems can be contained in one thin volume, but their significance, especially that of the *Elegy*, can hardly be overestimated.

Percy's *Reliques*, 1765. Interest in romanticism was greatly strengthened by the appearance in 1765 of a book called *The Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*, but better known as "*Percy's Reliques*." This was a collection of old ballads made by Bishop Percy. Unfortunately he felt that in their original form they were too rude to be presented to the literary world; and therefore he smoothed and polished them to some extent, substituting lines of his own for such as were missing or such as appeared to him unworthy. The timid editor was astounded to find that these old ballads received a hearty welcome, and that their very simplicity and rude directness were their great charm to people who were tired of couplets and criticism.

William Cowper 1731-1800. Thus the *Elegy*, the



WILLIAM COWPER,
1731-1800

Reliques, and even Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*, written in couplets as it was, helped on the new romanticism. So did the work of William Cowper, who began to write soon after the death of Goldsmith, and who resembled Goldsmith in love of nature and in writing straight from the heart. As a boy Cowper was the shyest of children, and it is no wonder that the timid little fellow suffered agonies when at the age of six he was

sent to boarding school. From time to time throughout his life his mind was unbalanced, often because the gentle, conscientious man feared that his

sins were unpardonable. His later years were spent in the quiet villages of Weston and Olney; and he sent to his friends most charming letters about his pets, his garden, his long walks about the country, and the merry thoughts and witty fancies that were continually coming into his mind. Every one knew him and every one loved him. Here it was that he wrote. Many of his hymns, such as *God moves in a mysterious way*, and *Oh! for a closer walk with God*, are familiar; but equally well known are *The Diverting History of John Gilpin* with its rollicking fun, and *The Task*. "What shall I write on?" the poet once asked his friend Lady Austen. "The sofa," she replied jestingly. He obeyed, and named The Task. his poem *The Task*. He wrote first and with 1785. mock dignity about the evolution of the sofa. Then he slipped away from parlours and cities and wrote of the country that he loved.

God made the country, and man made the town,
he said. Here he is at his best. Every season was dear to him. He writes of winter:

I love thee, all unlovely as thou seemest,
And dreaded as thou art.

He sympathizes with the horses dragging a heavy wagon in the storm; he notes the robin,

Flitting light
From spray to spray, where'er he rests he shakes
From many a twig the pendent drops of ice
That tinkle in the withered leaves below.

He says indignantly:

I would not enter on my list of friends
(Though graced with polished manners and fine sense,
Yet wanting sensibility) the man
Who needlessly sets foot upon a worm.

All this was quite different from the earlier poetry of the century. Pope's influence had not disappeared by any means, and Cowper could write such balanced lines as—

Knowledge is proud that he has learned so much ;
Wisdom is humble that he knows no more :

but his frank love of nature and simple things was not in the least like Pope ; and there was more and even better poetry of this sort to be done before the close of the century by a Scotsman named Robert Burns.

Robert Burns 1759-1796. Burns was the son of an intelligent, religious farmer. His years of school were few, but he was by no means an ignorant man, for he had a shelf of good books, and he had long evenings of conversation with his father, a man of no common mould. Another thing was of the utmost value to him who was to become the poet of Scotland, and that was his mother's familiarity with the ballads and songs of the olden time, and the fairy tales and legends with which the mind of one Betty Davidson, a member of the family, was stocked.

When Burns was sixteen, he met a pretty girl, and wrote a poem to her, *Handsome Nell*. This was the beginning, and from that time until he was twenty-eight, his life was full of song writing, of hard work, and of the rather wild merry-making of one or two clubs. He had no model for his poetry except the poems of Allan Ramsay, who wrote in the early part of the century, and Robert Fergusson, who wrote about the middle. When Burns discovered Fergusson's work, he was delighted, for here was a poet who wrote in Scotch, who loved

Burn's
first poem,
*Handsome
Nell*. 1775.

nature, who had a turn for satire keen and kindly, and a touch of humour. Burns felt that he had found a master, and for some time he meekly followed Fergusson's ways of writing and imitated his metres without apparently the least idea that he himself was far greater than his predecessor.

When Burns was twenty-five, his father died. He and his brother tried hard to make some profit from the farm, but it seemed hopeless. Robert's own recklessness had brought him into difficulties, and he determined to go to Jamaica. One thing must be had first, and that was the money for his outfit and his passage. Some of his friends suggested that printing the poems which he had written might help to fill his empty purse. In 1786 Burn's first volume. 1786. the little volume was published, and the poet felt rich with his twenty guineas. He bought his outfit, paid his passage, and wrote what he supposed was the last song he should ever compose in Scotland. The vessel was not quite ready to sail, and while he waited, a letter came which suggested that it might be worth while to publish an edition of his poems in Edinburgh. For the glory and gain of such visit to Edinburgh. a possibility, the poet set out for Edinburgh and the ship sailed without him. He had no letters of introduction to the great folk of the capital city, but none were needed, for his poems had gone before him; and he, the young peasant fresh from his unsuccessful farming, found himself the social and literary lion of the day. The new edition of his poems came out, and he was fêted and flattered until many a brain would have turned.

The farmer poet, however, was perfectly self-possessed. He was not in the least overpowered by the

attention shown him. His only mistake was in not realizing that the people who praised him so heartily would forget all about him in a month.

Dis-
appoint-
ment.

He hoped that some of those men of rank and wealth who claimed to be his friends and admirers would help to secure for him some position in which he could have part of his time free for poetry. He



ROBERT BURNS,
1759-1796

was disappointed, for nothing came of his visit but a little money, a little fame, and the restless, unhappy feeling that there was a world of intellect, of cultivation, of association with the most brilliant men of his country, and that he was shut out from this by nothing but the want of money. He was not strong enough to put the thought away from him. He had one more winter in Edinburgh; but while there was quite as much admiration of his poems, the novelty was gone, and the lovers of novelty were not so attentive. Burns made no complaint. He secured a position as an excise man, rented a little farm, married Jean Armour, and set out to live on his small income. Scotland's poet was tracking smugglers, working on a farm, and incidentally writing such poems as *Tam O'Shanter*, *Bannockburn*, and *The Banks o' Doon*.

The farm was not a success, and he moved to a tiny house in Dumfries. The years were hard. Burns's readiness to please and be pleased led him into whatever company chose him, not the company which he

should have chosen. He wrote to a friend that he was "making ballads, and then drinking and singing them." He was keenly sensitive to right and wrong, but lacked the power to choose the right and refuse the wrong. The end came very soon, for he was only thirty-seven when he died.

Burns's most notable work. The songs of Burns have been sung wherever English is spoken. They are so simple and sincere that they go straight to the heart, so musical that they almost make their own melody. Songs of such intense feeling as *Songs of Burns* "My luve is like a red, red rose," of such tenderness as "O wert thou in the cauld blast" cannot go out of fashion. Burns's tenderness is not for human beings alone, but for the tiny field mouse whose "wee bit housie" has been torn up by the plough, and whom he comforts,—

But, Mousie, thou art no thy lane,¹
In proving foresight may be vain :
The best-laid schemes o' mice an' men
Gang aft a-gley.²

Closely allied to his tenderness is his charity, a charity which is often delightfully combined with humour, as in his *Address to the Deil*, which closes,—

But fare you weel, auld Nickie-ben !³
O wad ye tak a thought an' men' !
Ye aiblins⁴ might—I dinna ken—
Still hae a stake.⁵

Two of Burns's longer poems of contrasting character are, next to his songs, his most famous works,

¹ not alone.

⁴ perhaps.

² go oft amiss.

⁵ chance.

³ A nickname of Satan.

—*Tam o' Shanter* and *The Cotter's Saturday Night*.

Tam o'
Shanter.
1790.

The first is one of the most fascinating poems ever written. The good-for-nothing Tam, the long-suffering, scolding wife, the night at the inn where "ay the ale was growing better," the furious storm, Tam's setting out for home "fou and unco happy," but with prudent glances over his shoulder "lest bogles catch him unawares,"—these are all put before us, sometimes with a touch of humour, sometimes with uproarious fun; but always fascinating, always impossible to read without a smile.

The
Cotter's
Saturday
Night.
1785.

The second poem, *The Cotter's Saturday Night*, is a picture of the poet's own childhood home on Saturday evening when—

The elder bairns come drapping in,
At service out, amang the farmers roun'.

Everything is simple and homely.

The mother, wi' her needle an' her sheers,
Gars¹ auld claes² look amaist as weel's the new;
The father mixes a' wi' admonition due.

We can almost hear the knock of the bashful "neebor lad" who has come to call on the eldest daughter. We see them all sitting down to the porridge that forms their supper. We watch the grey-haired father as he takes the Bible,—

And "Let us worship God!" he says with solemn air.

A Scotsman asked to read in public said, "Do not ask me to give *The Cotter's Saturday Night*. A man should read that on his knees as he would read his

¹ makes.

² clothes.

Bible." Love of his childhood's home, love of country, love of the right were in Burns's heart when he wrote—

From scenes like these old Scotia's grandeur springs,
That makes her lov'd at home, rever'd abroad.
Princes and lords are but the breath of kings,
"An honest man's the noblest work of God."

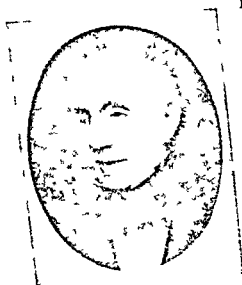
The eighteenth century began and ended with poetry, but it produced no imaginative poet of the first rank. It may be called the age of prose, and it is famous for essayists, novelists, writers on ethics and politics, and historians—a proud record for one short century.

CHAPTER XI

NINETEENTH CENTURY

THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY

The "Lake Poets." The three qualities that were so clearly manifested in the poetry of Burns, namely, interest in man, love of nature, and impatience of restraint, become even more apparent in the writings of the nineteenth century. Individuality increased. It is less easy to label writers as belonging to a certain "school." The three poets of the first of the century who are usually classed together as the "Lake School" have little in common except their friendship and the fact that they lived in the Lake Country. These three were William Wordsworth, Samuel



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.
WILLIAM WORDSWORTH,
1770-1850

Taylor Coleridge, and Robert Southey.

When Wordsworth was twenty-one he went to France to study. Those were the Revolutionary days; and the young student sided with the Girondists so vigorously that he would surely have fallen into political trouble if his friends had not stopped his allowance in order to compel him to return. When the revolution became only a

wild orgy of slaughter, he was disappointed and doubtful of everything ; but his beloved sister Dorothy came to live with him, and, as he said, gave him an exquisite regard for common things and preserved the poet in him.

After three or four years of quiet country life, a brilliant, sympathetic man became a visitor at the Wordsworth cottage. This was Coleridge. ^{Samuel Taylor Coleridge.} He was a man who was interested in everything by turns. His brain was full ^{1772-1834.} of visions and schemes. He was in the army for a while. He planned to found a model republic on the Susquehanna in North America. He was a wonderful talker on politics, philosophy, theology, poetry — whatever came uppermost. Together he and Wordsworth discussed what ideal poetry should be. Wordsworth believed that a poet should write on everyday subjects in everyday language. Coleridge believed that lofty or supernatural subjects might be so treated as to seem simple and real.

Lyrical Ballads, 1798. The two men agreed to bring out a little book, *Lyrical Ballads*, and go to Germany with its proceeds ; and this was done. Coleridge's chief contribution to the volume was *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, that weird and marvellous tale of the suffering ^{The Rime of the Ancient Mariner.} that must follow an act not in loving accord with nature. This poem is like the old ballads in its simplicity and directness, but very unlike them in the fulness of its harmony. Coleridge was a master of sound. Here is his sound picture of a brook :

A noise like of a hidden brook
In the leafy month of June,
That to the sleeping woods all night
Singeth a quiet tune.

The breaking up of the ice is thus described :

It cracked and growled, and roared and howled,
Like noises in a swound.

The similes of the poem are of the kind that not only adorn a statement but illuminate it; the mariner passes, "like night," from land to land. The vessel in a calm is

As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean.

Wordsworth's contributions to the book were many, and of widely differing value. When he remembered his theories, he was capable of such stuff as—

But yet I guess that now and then
With Betty all was not so well ;
And to the road she turns her ears,
And thence full many a sound she hears,
Which she to Susan will not tell.

Here, too, was his *We are Seven*. The treatment is quite as simple as in the preceding poem; but while *We are Seven*. the first seems like the awkward attempt of a man to be childlike, the simplicity of the second is appropriate because the poem is a conversation with a child. In this same volume was *Tintern Abbey*. the beautiful *Tintern Abbey*, wherein all theories were forgotten. It is hardly colloquial language when the author says,—

The sounding cataract
Haunted me like a passion ;

or when he bids—

Therefore let the moon
Shine on thee in thy solitary walks ;
And let the misty mountain-wind be free
To blow against thee.

Robert Southey, 1774-1843. After their visit to Germany, both poets settled in the Lake Country. Near them was the home of the poet Southey, who had been one of Coleridge's converts to the Susquehanna scheme.

These were the three who were best known as poets when the nineteenth century began. Southey wrote weird, strange epics: *The Curse of Kehama*, The Curse of Kehama. 1810. a Hindu tale, and *Thalaba*, the story of a young Arabian who sets out to avenge his father. Thalaba. 1801. Southey was always attracted by the strange and distant; and yet he took delight in the simplest things, and made the best of whatever came. In 1813 he was chosen Poet Laureate; but only a few years later he discovered that the public did not care for more poetry from him, and he said with the utmost composure, "I have done enough to be remembered among poets, though my proper place will be among the historians, if I live to complete the works upon yonder shelves." For twenty years longer Southey worked industriously at prose. He wrote histories and biographies, an excellent Life of Nelson. 1813. life of Nelson among the latter. Here was his true field, for his prose is charmingly clear and sturdy; and while making no apparent attempt at formal description, he nevertheless contrives to leave a strongly outlined picture in the mind of the reader.

Coleridge's best work. Coleridge's best poetry was written about the time of the publication of *Lyrical Ballads*. It was then that he com- Christabel. 1797-1800. posed the first part of *Christabel*, the mystic tale of the innocent maiden who is enthralled by the power of magic. Then, too, he wrote the dazzling

fragment *Kubla Khan*, part of a poem which, he said, came to him while he slept. The rest of it was driven from his memory by an interruption. Whatever Coleridge touched with his poetic gift was rich and splendid; but nearly everything was incomplete. So it was in prose. No

one can read a single page of his writings without realizing that their author was a man of deep and original thought and of rarely equalled ability; and yet here, too, all was unfinished.

Coleridge said that he trembled at the thought of the question, "I gave thee so many talents; what hast thou done with them?" His excuse was a certain weakness of the will. This was increased by the use of opium, which he began to

take to quiet pain, and which was for many years his tyrant. This great man, who influenced every one that heard him speak or that read his written words, was utterly without ability to command his own powers, to govern his own mind. He has left little save fragments,—but they are magnificent fragments.

Wordsworth's life. Wordsworth's life was quite unlike that of Coleridge. He married in 1802, and, as he said, was "conscious of blessedness" in his marriage. A sum of money which had been due to



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd
SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE,
1772-1834

his father was at last paid to him, and he lived on happily and tranquilly in his beloved Lake country, making many trips abroad or to different parts of the British Isles. He was a keen lover of beauty, but the beauty of nature rather than that of art. He fell asleep before the *Venus de Medici*, but he wrote one of his best sonnets on the beach at Calais. His finest poems were written during the early years of the century.

Appreciation was slow in finding Wordsworth, partly because first Scott and then Byron were coming before the public, and there was nothing in Wordsworth's writings to arouse the wild enthusiasm with which people welcomed their productions. Another reason was that

Slow ap-
preciation
of Words-
worth.

Wordsworth's utter lack of humour permitted him, in pursuit of his theories, to put absurd doggerel into poems that were otherwise fine. The critics ridiculed the doggerel and passed by what was really worthy. "Heed not such onset," the poet said to himself, and serenely continued to write. Slowly one after another began to see that no one else could describe the every-day sights of nature as could Wordsworth, or could interpret so well the feelings that they aroused in one who loved them. Other poets could write of tempests and crags and precipices; but Wordsworth could picture a "common day" and an "ordinary" landscape. He could do more than picture; he could make the reader feel that in nature was a mysterious life, the thought of its Creator, half expressed and half revealed. Long before 1830 Scott had ceased to write poetry, Byron and Shelley and Keats were dead. Men began to turn back a score of years, to see that in Wordsworth's

poems there was an excellence that they had overlooked. They passed by the imbecilities of *Peter Bell*, they read the charming little daffodil poem, they began to appreciate the grandeur of the *Ode on the Intimations of Immortality*, with its magnificent sweep of poetry :

There was a time when meadow, grove, and stream.
The earth, and every common sight,
To me did seem
Apparelled in celestial light,
The glory and the freshness of a dream.

Little by little Wordsworth's noble office was recognized, and he was known as the faithful interpreter of nature and of God in nature. In 1836 a complete edition of his works was called for. On the death of Southey in 1843, he was made Poet Laureate with the good-will of all lovers of true poetry.

Those first thirty years of the century were glorious times for literature. Besides the Lake Poets, there were the romantic writers, Scott and Byron ; the lovers of beauty, Shelley and Keats ; the essayists, Charles Lamb and De Quincey ; the magazine critics ; and the realist, Jane Austen.

Sir Walter Scott, 1771-1832. When we first hear of Walter Scott he was a little lame, sickly child who had been sent away from Edinburgh to his grandfather's farm in the hope that he might grow stronger. Fortunately for all who love a good story, this hope was realized, and it was not long before he was galloping wherever a pony could carry him and scrambling wherever the pony could not go. The two things that he liked best were this wild roaming over the country and listening to the old ballads and

legends that his grandmother recited to him by the score. When he was older, he was sent to school in Edinburgh. He was not the ^{Boyhood.} leader of his class by any means ; but out of school there was not a boy who would not gladly follow him to some wild, romantic spot to listen to his stories of the border warfare. One day he came across a book half a century old which delighted his heart. It was Bishop Percy's *Reliques*. This was happiness. The hungry schoolboy forgot his dinner and lay out under the trees reading over and over again of Douglas and Percy and Robin Hood and Sir Patrick Spens. This book settled the question of what his life-work should be, though it was some years before he found his place.



SIR WALTER SCOTT,
1771-1832

After leaving the university he studied law and was admitted to the bar. He married, held various public offices, and was financially comfortable. In 1799, when he was twenty-eight, he made his first appearance in literature with some translations from German poetry. A little later he wrote a border ballad, *The Eve of St. John*. Great numbers of border ballads were still remembered, though they had never been put into print. Scott determined to collect these, and somewhat in the fashion of Fuller, he roamed over the country, taking down every scrap of the old balladry, every bit of

*The Eve of
St. John.*
1800.

legend that he could get from any one who chanced to remember the ancient lore. In 1802 he published *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*, and in 1805, *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*. Then there was enthusiasm indeed. Men had wandered into distant lands for the new, the strange, the romantic; but the *Lay* revealed their own country as its home. Here was a poem which was song, description, dialogue, legend, superstition, chivalry, every-day life,—and all

blended into a story told by an ideal story-teller. Scott's listeners were as intent as those of his school-

days had been. There was no more thought of courts and law books. The teller of stories had

found his place. He planned a romantic novel, but laid it aside. During the next three years he edited

various works, and in the third year he published

Marmion. *Marmion*. Large sums of money were coming in from his poems and also from the publish-

ing business, in which he had engaged with some old school friends, and he was free to carry out his dearest wish, to buy the estate of Abbotsford and become one of the "landed gentry."

Scott abandons poetry. In 1812, the year of his removal to Abbotsford, the first two cantos of *Childe Harold*, a brilliant poem in a new vein, came out, written by Lord Byron. The crowd had found a new idol, and Scott's next poem, published in the following year, had much smaller sales than his previous works. Scott brought out another poem, but evidently the fickle public did not care for more of his poetry, and he began to think about the romance which he had planned several years earlier. The result of this thinking was that in 1814 the reading world went wild

with delight over *Waverley*, by an unknown writer; for Scott, no one knows just why, did not *Waverley*. wish to be known as its author. Story after 1814. story followed,—one, two, even three, in a single year. “Walter Scott is the only man in the land who could write them,” was the general belief; but the secret was kept for some time.

Scott was happy in his home. Abbotsford was the very hearthstone of Scotland for a joyous hospitality. Great folk and little folk, rich and poor, lords *Abbots-* and ladies, scientific men, artists, authors, *ford*. admirers from across the sea, old school friends, relatives even to the twentieth degree—they were all welcomed to Abbotsford. Sir Walter—for George IV had made him a baronet—usually worked three or four hours before breakfast, which was between nine and ten, and perhaps two hours afterwards; but when noon had come, he was ready for any kind of amusement, provided it was out of doors,—a long walk or ride with his dogs, hunting or fishing, or whatever might suggest itself.

It is a pity that this happy life should have been clouded; but in 1826 the publishers with whom Scott was connected failed. The romancer *Failure* might easily have freed himself from all *of pub-* claims; but instead he quietly set to work to *lishers*. pay with his pen the £130,000 that was due. Novels, histories, a nine-volume life of Bonaparte, editorial work, translations, were undertaken in rapid succession. Paralysis attacked him; still he struggled on. In 1831 the government lent him a frigate to carry him to Italy for rest and change.

The might

Of the whole world's good wishes with him goes,

wrote Wordsworth ; but rest had come too late. In 1832 he returned to Abbotsford, and there he died. "Time and I against any two," he had said bravely when he took the enormous debt upon himself. Time had failed him, but he had paid more than half, and the royalties on his books finally paid the rest.

Scott's best work was his Scottish romances, wherein he aimed chiefly at telling a romantic story and laid the scene in the past in order to add to the romantic effect. In such stories as *Kenilworth*, however, he shows himself the real inventor of the historical novel, that fascinating combination of old and new, of customs and manners that are strange and practised by men and women with loves and hates and instincts like our own. His power lies, first, in his knowledge of the past, a knowledge that, in spite of its being somewhat superficial and not always exact from the modern antiquary's point of view, was so full and so ready that of whatever age he wrote he seemed to be living in the period ; second, in his imagination, his ability to invent incidents and picture scenes ; third, in his power of humorous perception and characterization, especially in Scottish characters. There have been more profound students than Scott, and there have been better makers of plots, but no man, either before or after him, has ever been able to give a more living picture of dead times.

Lord Byron, 1788-1824. George Gordon, Lord Byron, whose *Childe Harold* brought Scott's narrative poetry to an end, was the son of a worthless profligate and a mother who sometimes petted him, sometimes abused him, and was capable of flying into storms of anger at a moment's warning. He was so sensitive about his lameness that as a tiny child he struck fiercely with his whip at a

The historical novel.

Hours of Idleness. ~ 1807.

visitor who ventured to express some pity for him. When he was ten years of age, he became Lord Byron, and was so fond of alluding to his rank that the schoolboys called him "the old English baron." At nineteen he published his first book of poems, *Hours of Idleness*. It was only a boy's work, but the position of this boy made it conspicuous, and the Edinburgh critics reviewed it sharply. Byron was angry, and two years later he blazed out with *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*, wherein he not only attacked the reviewers, with his scornful couplet,—

A man must serve his time to every
trade

Save censure—critics all are ready
made,—

but struck fiercely at his innocent fellow authors. Wordsworth he pronounced an idiot, Coleridge the laureate of asses, Scott a maker of stale romance, and the mighty Jeffrey, the editor of the offending *Edinburgh Review*, he declared to



LORD BYRON,
1788-1824

be "the great literary anthropophagus." His own critical judgments were of small value, and he was afterwards exceedingly sorry for his foolish lines; but evidently this boy was not to be suppressed even by the great folk of the *Edinburgh*.

Byron went abroad, and in 1812 he produced the first part of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, and then, he said, "I awoke one morning and found myself famous." He continued to write. Scott's *Lay of the Last*

English
Bards and
Scotch Re-
viewers.
1809.

Minstrel and *Marmion* began to seem tame when compared with the turbulent characters and the novel manners of the East, where most of Byron's scenes were laid. England and the Continent bowed down before this new genius. He married, but soon his wife left him, giving no reason for her desertion. Public sympathy was with her, and Byron became a wanderer, tossing back to England poems of scorn and satire and affection and pathos; sometimes living simply and quietly, sometimes sinking to the depths of dissipation; in his writings sometimes low and vulgar, but always brilliant. He wrote wild, romantic tales in poetry,—*The Bride of Abydos*, *The Corsair*, and others; he wrote equally wild and lurid dramas; and, last of all, *Don Juan*, the story of a vicious but amusing man and his life; often revolting, but, as Scott said, containing "exquisite morsels of poetry." Byron was capable of tender sympathy with suffering and warm appreciation of heroism, as he shows in *The Prisoner of Chillon*; but, as a general thing, there were but two subjects that interested him deeply, himself and nature. His poems have one and the same hero, a cynical young man, weary of life, scornful and melancholy. This is the poet's somewhat theatrical notion of himself. He once objected to a bust of himself on the ground that the expression was "not unhappy enough." There is nothing theatrical, however, about his love of nature when he writes such lines as—

The big rain comes dancing to the earth.

Oh, night

And storm and darkness, ye are wondrous strong,
Yet lovely in your strength.

The stormy cynic could also write, and with most exquisite delicacy of touch, of a quiet summer evening ;

It is the hush of night, and all between
Thy margin and the mountains, dusk, yet clear,
Mellow'd and mingling, yet distinctly seen,
Save darken'd Jura, whose cap heights appear
Precipitously steep ; and drawing near,
There breathes a living fragrance from the shore,
Of flowers yet fresh with childhood ; on the ear
Drops the light drip of the suspended oar,
Or chirps the grasshopper one good-night carol more.

In 1823 the Greeks were struggling to win their freedom from the Turks. Byron determined to play a part in the war, and set out for Missolonghi. The misanthropic poet suddenly became the practical commander ; but before he could take the field, he died of fever at the age of thirty-six.

Percy Bysshe Shelley, 1792-1822. The works of two poets of this time, Percy Bysshe Shelley and John Keats, are so strongly marked by their love of beauty and their ability to express it as to separate them from the others. Shelley's whole life was a revolt against restraint. After five months' residence at Oxford he wrote a pamphlet against the Christian religion, and was promptly expelled. At nineteen he married a young girl, three years his junior, because he thought she was



PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY,
1792-1822

tyrannized over in being required to obey the rules of her school.

Shelley loved the world, and he longed to have all things pure and beautiful ; but he fancied that the one change needed to bring about this state of purity and beauty was to abolish the laws and the religion in which men believed. It is hard for ordinary mortals to understand his way of looking at matters ; but those who knew him best were convinced of his honesty. *Prometheus Unbound* is one of his best long poems. He pictures the hero as rebelling against the gods, indeed, but as a loving man. The longer works are very beautiful, but there are three or four of his shorter poems that every one loves. One is *The Cloud*, beginning,

I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers,
From the seas and the streams ;
I bring light shade for the leaves when laid
In their noonday dreams.

Another favourite is his *Ode to The West Wind*, and yet another is *To a Skylark* :

Hail to thee, blithe spirit—
Bird thou never wert—
That from heaven or near it
Pourest thy full heart
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art.

There is a wonderful upspringing in this poem ; it hardly seems to touch the ground, but to be made of light and music. In even so earthly a simile as his comparison between the lark and a glow-worm, he lightens and lifts it by a single word :

Like a glow-worm golden
 In a dell of dew,
 Scattering unbeholden
 Its *aerial* hue

Among the flowers and grass which screen it from the view.

Another simile which surely would never have come to the mind of anyone but Shelley, or perhaps Donne, was,

Like a poet *hidden*
In the light of thought,
 Singing hymns unbidden,
 Till the world is wrought

To sympathy with hopes and fears it heeded not.

Shelley was drowned while yachting in the Bay of Spezzia. The quarantine law required that his body should be burned, and this was done in the presence of Byron and two other friends. His ashes were laid in the little Protestant burying-ground at Rome, not far from Keats, who had died only a year before. It was in grief for the loss of Keats that he had written his lament, *Adonais*, in which he had said of the poet,

Peace, peace! he is not dead, he doth not sleep!
 He hath awakened from the dream of life.

A little volume of Keats' poems was with Shelley on the yacht, and was washed up with his body.

John Keats, 1795-1821. For Keats life was not easy, though he had nothing in him of revolt against the established order of things. At school he was a great favourite and also a great fighter. A small thing made him happy and a small thing made him miserable. At fifteen he was apprenticed to a London surgeon; but long before then he had begun to dream golden dreams of what had been when the world was younger. His inspiration came from the

past, from the Middle Ages, from Spenser, and from the graceful fancies and depths of the Greek mythology.

In 1818, when he was twenty-three years of age, Keats published his *Endymion*. It was savagely criticized by the *Quarterly Review* and *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*, but the young poet was not to be suppressed. He made no bitter reply, as Byron had done, but he quietly

wrote on, and two years later published some of his best work. Here were *The Eve of St Agnes*, *Lamia*, and others of his longer poems, absolutely overflowing with beauty and glowing with light and colour:

Rose-bloom fell on her hands, together prest,
And on her silver cross
soft amethyst,
And on her hair a glory
like a saint



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JOHN KEATS,
1795-1821

If all Keats's poems but one were to be destroyed, most of those who love him would choose the *Ode to a Grecian Urn* to be saved. This poem is silver-clear, there is not a touch of colour. About the urn is a graceful course of youths and maidens and gods with pipes and timbrels and leafy boughs. The poet writes:

Ode to a
Grecian
Urn 1820

Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
 Are sweeter ; therefore, ye soft pipes, play on ;
 Not to the sensual ear, but, more endear'd,
 Pipe to the spirit ditties of no tone ;
 Fair youth, beneath the trees, thou canst not leave
 Thy song, nor ever can those trees be bare ;
 Bold Lover, never, never canst thou kiss,
 Though winning near the goal—yet, do not grieve ;
 She cannot fade, though thou hast not thy bliss,
 For ever wilt thou love, and she be fair.

Keats was only twenty-five when he died, in Italy, where he had gone in the hope of saving his life. His ideals were so high that he felt as if what he had done was nothing. "If I should die," he said, "I have left no immortal work behind me"; but the lovers of poetry have thought otherwise and have ranked him among the first of those who have loved beauty and have created it.

Charles Lamb, 1775-1834. While Keats and Shelley were in Italy, while Byron and Scott were at the height of their literary glory, while Wordsworth and Southey and Coleridge were revelling in the beauties of the Lake Country, Charles Lamb, the most charming of essayists, was adding and subtracting at his desk in the East India House, until, as he said, the wood had entered into his soul.

When Lamb was a little boy, he was sent to the Blue-Coat School. He longed to go on to the university, but his aid was needed at home. A few years later his sister Mary, in a sudden attack of insanity, killed her mother. The young man of twenty-one, with some literary ambition and a keen appetite for enjoyment, bravely laid aside his own wishes, reckoned up his little income of £120 a year, and took upon himself the care of his father and his sister. Mary Lamb

recovered, but as the years went on, attacks came with increasing frequency. Yet it was not, save for this constant dread, an unhappy life for either of them. There was never money enough for thoughtless expenditure, but there was enough for their simple way of living. Their circle of friends widened; Lamb's friends. and what a company it was that used to meet in those little brown rooms! There were Wordsworth,



CHARLES LAMB,
1775 1834

Coleridge, Southey, Leigh Hunt, De Quincey, and others without number. There was the sister Mary in her grey silk gown and white muslin kerchief and quaintly frilled cap. Every one of that brilliant company respected and admired her, valued her opinion, and never failed of her sympathy. In the midst of them all was Charles Lamb, seeing nothing but good in every one of them, often pouring out the wildest fun,

but always mindful of his sister, lest too eager a discussion or a jest too many might lead on to an attack of insanity. It was when she was "ill," as he tenderly phrased it, that he planned to dedicate to her his little volume of poems, because, as he said, people living together "get a sort of indifference in the expression of kindness for each other."

The best of his time and strength went to the endless adding and subtracting, but the evenings were often given to writing, so far as the friends would

permit. "I am never C. L.," Lamb groaned half in jest and half in earnest, "but always C. L. and Co." Yet in the work done in these fragments of his life he has left us a rich legacy. For ten years, from 1797 to 1807, his pen attempted all sorts of things. He wrote several poems, among them *The Old Familiar Faces*, with its depth of tender affection and longing; and *Hester*, most graceful of all memorials. He wrote a story or two; he was actually under agreement to provide six witty paragraphs a day for one of the papers; he wrote prologues and epilogues for his friends' plays, and finally he wrote a play of his own. It was acted; but it was such an evident failure that the author himself, sitting far up in front, hissed it louder than anyone else.

The Old Familiar Faces.
1798.

Hester,
Written
1803.

In 1807 the *Tales from Shakespeare* came out, and that was a success. Mary wrote the comedies and Charles the tragedies, "groaning all the while," his sister said, "and saying he can make nothing of it, which he always says till he has finished, and then he finds out he has made something of it."

Tales from Shakespeare.
1807.

During the following year he published *Specimens of Dramatic Poets Contemporary with Shakespeare*. Here he gives, as he says, "sometimes a scene, sometimes a song, a speech, or a passage, or a poetical image, as they happened to strike me,"—and to know how they struck the mind of Charles Lamb is the delightful part of it, for no one else has ever gone so directly to the heart of a play as this unassuming clerk of the East India House—and then he talks a little in a friendly, informal way. His crowning work is the

Specimens of Dramatic Poets Contemporary with Shakespeare.
1803.

Essays of Elia, short, delightful little chats about whatever came into his mind. He writes about the Blue-Coat School in the days of his boyhood, about *Witches and Other Night Fears*; he muses about *Dream Children*; he complains whimsically of the *Decay of Beggars in the Metropolis*; he presents with a merry mockery of profound learning a grave *Dissertation upon Roast Pig*; and describes with pathetic humour the feelings of *The Superannuated Man* who after many years of faithful work is given a pension by his employers, and is at liberty to live his own life. This was a page from Lamb's experience, for in 1825 his employers gave him a generous pension, and at last he was free. This is what he says of his freedom:

"I have indeed lived nominally fifty years, but deduct out of them the hours which I have lived to other people, and not to myself, and you will find me still a young fellow. For that is the only true Time, which a man can properly call his own—that which he has all to himself; the rest, though in some sense he may be said to live it, is other people's Time, not his. The remnant of my poor days, long or short, is at least multiplied for me three-fold. My ten next years, if I stretch so far, will be as long as any preceding thirty. 'Tis a fair rule-of-three sum. . . . I have worked task-work and have all the rest of the day to myself." The "rest of the day" was short, for after only nine years of freedom, the most genial, delicate, charming of humorists passed away.

Thomas De Quincey. 1785-1859. "Charming" is the word that best describes the essays of Charles Lamb, but "fascinating" ought always to be saved for

those of Thomas De Quincey. The man himself is intensely interesting. As a boy he was a great favourite with other boys because of his never-failing good-nature and his willingness to help them with their lessons ; and with the teachers because he was such a brilliant scholar. When he was fifteen, he

could chatter away in Greek as easily as in English. Two years later he went on a ramble to Wales, then slipped away to London, and came near dying of starvation. After being at Oxford, he visited Wordsworth. They became friends and were neighbours for twenty-seven years. Whoever met De Quincey was delighted with him. To the



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THOMAS DE QUINCEY,
1785-1859

Wordsworth children he was their beloved "Kinsey," and he was equally dear to John Wilson, who was to become the great "Christopher North" of *Blackwood's Magazine*. He was always ready to join in any light chat, but if left to himself, he had a fashion of gliding away in his talk to all sorts of profound and mysterious themes which only he knew how to make delightful.

During those years in the Lake County too great

generosity and the failures of others had lessened his

First lit-
erary
work.

little fortune. He had a wife and children to support, and he began to write for the magazines; he even edited a local newspaper

at a salary of one guinea a week. In 1821 he went to London. He was thirty-six years old, older than Byron or Shelley or Keats had been when their fame was secure; but with De Quincey there had been for seventeen years an enemy at court in the shape of opium, which among other effects weakened his will so that only the pressure of necessity could drive him to action. The necessity had come. Charles Lamb was writing his essays for the *London Magazine*, and he introduced De Quincey to the editors. Not long after

Confes-
sions of an
English
Opium-
Eater.
1821.

this introduction the readers of the *Magazine* were deeply interested by an article called *Confessions of an English Opium-Eater*. It might well arouse interest, for it was a thrilling account of the experiences that come from

the use of opium. It sounded so honest that the critics were half decided that it must be a work of imagination. This was the real beginning of the one hundred and fifty magazine articles written by De Quincey.

Sorrows came upon him. His wife and two of his sons died, and he was helpless. In all practical matters he was the most ignorant of men. De Quincey's help-
lessness. With a large draft in his pocket, he once lived for a number of days in the cheapest lodgings he could find, because he did not know that the draft, payable in twenty-one days, could be cashed at once. Now with six motherless children, he was more of a child than any of them. His eldest daughter quietly planned for him to have a home

at Lasswade, near Edinburgh, and there he was loved and cared for. Caring for this gentle, erratic man must have been somewhat of a "worriment," for he was quite capable of slipping out in the evening for a walk, lying down under a tree or a hedge, and sleeping calmly all night long. His books and papers accumulated like drifts in a snowstorm, and only his daughter's gentle control prevented him from filling room after room with them, and so driving the family out of doors.

Two of his best-known essays are *The Flight of a Tartar Tribe* and *Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts*. The inspiration of the first seems to have been a few sentences in a missionary report. From these and his own wide read-

The Flight of a Tartar Tribe.
1837.

ing, he made the flight of the Tartars across Asia as vivid as any actual journey of his readers. The second essay is written with a delightful air of mock gravity, and with verifying quotations from various languages. He declares his firm belief "that any man who deals in murder, must have very incorrect ways of thinking, and truly inaccurate principles." In a later article he carries his jest further and declares

Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts.
1872.

that "If once a man indulges himself in murder, very soon he comes to think little of robbing; and from robbing he comes next to drinking and Sabbath-breaking, and from that to incivility and procrastination. Once begin upon this downward path, you never know where you are to stop. Many a man has dated his ruin from some murder or other that perhaps he thought little of at the time."

So De Quincey goes on. He can be dreamy and gentle, strikingly vivid, or whimsical, or he can give

a plain, straightforward narrative, and in every case adapt his style perfectly to the mood of the hour. His published works fill sixteen volumes, "full of brain from beginning to end."

The Reviews. Almost all of De Quincey's work was done for some one of the magazines that were established in the first twenty years of the century. The earliest was the *Edinburgh Review*. It began in 1802 with very decided principles. One was that articles must be written by men of standing; second, Edinburgh Review. 1802. that they must be paid for; third, that reviews and criticisms should be absolutely independent. Francis Jeffrey soon became its editor, and was its ruling spirit for a quarter of a century. This magazine was so strongly Whiggish in tone that an opposition Tory magazine, the Quarterly Review. 1809. *Quarterly Review*, was soon founded. Then came *Blackwood's Magazine*, whose great man was John Wilson, or "Christopher North." These periodicals were so partisan and so bent upon being "independent" that many authors, like Black-wood's Magazine. 1817. Keats and Wordsworth, suffered most unfairly at their hands; but, however hard their reviews were for individual writers, they were certainly good for literature, for the very savageness of their criticism aroused discussion and interest in literary matters.

Jane Austen, 1775-1817. In the midst of the poems and romances and essays and reviews, the novel of home life held a minor place, but an important one. Immediately after the days of Richardson, Fielding, and Smollett, there was much story-writing, but these stories were generally romances. The best and almost the only real novels of the earliest years

of the nineteenth century were written by a girl in her twenties named Jane Austen who lived in a quiet village rectory. In 1796, when she was twenty-one, she wrote *Pride and Prejudice*, and during the next few years several other works followed. She kept her authorship a secret, and indeed, did not publish a book until 1811, three years before the appearance of *Waverley*. *Pride and Prejudice*, published 1813.

In some ways, these novels of the beginning of the century are very different from those written at its end. For one thing, Miss Austen often tells in long conversations what in later books is expressed by a hint. Her pictures give the minutest details of thought and feeling and action. In *Emma*, for instance, it requires several pages to make it clear that an elderly gentleman is afraid of a drive through the snow, but finally decides to attempt it. The same character in a later novel would glance anxiously out of the window and order his carriage. Miss Austen had a keen but most delicate sense of humour. In her own line she was almost as much of a realist as Defoe. She has a fashion of choosing several characters so nearly alike that we feel sure she "can make nothing of it"; but in her bits of description and her long conversations characteristics come out amazingly well; and suddenly we realize that she "has made something of it," that these monotonous people who seemed to have been created by the dozen have become thoroughly real and individual and interesting. Miss Austen died in 1817. The romantic poetry of Byron and what Scott called "the big bow-wow strain" of his own novels were filling the minds of readers, and it was not until long after

Emma, published 1816.
Miss Austen's excellence.

her death that her work received the attention and admiration that it deserved.

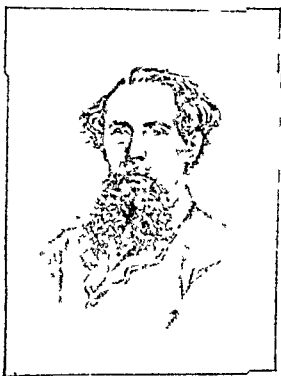
Occasionally in the history of literature we come to what seems a natural boundary. Such a boundary was reached in 1832. Before the close of that year Byron, Shelley, Keats, and Scott were dead; the literary work of Lamb and Coleridge was The year 1832. practically complete; Wordsworth wrote little more that was of value; only De Quincey and Southey were still active. The condition of the country was rapidly changing. In political history, too, 1832 was a natural boundary, for in that year the Reform Bill was passed, giving for the first time to many thousand people in England the right to be represented in Parliament. Education became more general, not only the education of schools, but that of books and papers. Books became cheaper, the circulation of papers increased. Cheap magazines were established. Scientific discoveries and inventions overthrew former ways of living and working and forced people to think, whether they would or not. The audience makes the author, and the author makes the audience. The half-century following 1832 was to see—among other marks of literary progress—a remarkable development of the novel, the essay, and the poem.

CHAPTER XII

THE VICTORIAN ERA

THE four novelists of the Victorian Age whose writings are looked upon as modern classics are Charles Dickens, William Makepeace Thackeray, "George Eliot," and George Meredith.

Charles Dickens, 1812-1870. The first nine years of Charles Dickens's life were very happy ; but his father's salary was cut down, and before long he was imprisoned for debt. The rest of the family established themselves in the prison, and there the little boy spent his Sundays. Through the week he was left to work all day in a cellar and spend his nights in an attic. It is no wonder that throughout his life he had deep sympathy for lonely children. After a while came a few years of prosperity, and the boy was sent to school. His father became a parliamentary reporter for one of the papers ; and when Charles was seventeen, he set out to learn shorthand. He was wise enough to realize that a good reporter must know



CHARLES DICKENS,
1812-1870

much more than shorthand, and he read, read hard hour after hour whenever he had the hours.

There were two things that the young man liked to do better than all else. One was to act and the other was to write; and one day he was too happy to keep the tears from his eyes, for the *Monthly Magazine* had published a paper of his, known afterwards as *Mr Minns and his Cousin* in *Sketches by Boz*. "Boz" was a contraction of his little sister's pronunciation of Moses, a nickname which Charles had given to his brother in memory of "Moses" in *The Vicar of Wakefield*. Other sketches followed. By and by they came out in book form. Then a

Pickwick
Papers.
1837-1839.

publishing firm asked if he would write a series of humorous articles. He agreed, and this was the origin of the *Pickwick Papers*.

Oliver
Twist.
1838.

Dickens was now twenty-five; his fame and his bank account were increasing rapidly. At the same time that the *Pickwick Papers* were coming out he wrote *Oliver Twist* for

Bentley's Miscellany and his other novels appeared in quick succession. He edited several periodicals, he wrote sketches of travel, and in 1850 he published *David Copperfield*, the work that he loved best, and a book that those who love its author cannot help find-

David Cop-
perfield.
1850.

ing most pathetic in the pictures that it gives of his own younger days. For twenty years longer his work went on. The public were more and more charmed with each story; and well they might have been, for every page was sparkling with merriment or throbbing with a pathos that came so straight from the writer's own heart that it could not fail to move his readers. When his characters blunder, they blunder delightfully

When they are sad, we sympathize with them; but when they are merry, then comes a full tide of rollicking fun that "doeth good like a medicine."

Dickens never seemed happier than when he was acting in amateur theatricals. This taste is evident in his novels. They often lack the drama's completeness of plot, but many of the characters have a touch of "make-up" which sometimes gives the reader a sense of their unreality, a feeling that they are figures on a stage rather than real men and women. Moreover, Dickens almost always fixes upon some special trick of expression or some one prominent quality, and by it he labels the character. Uriah Heep is always "'umble," Mr Micawber is always "waiting for something to turn up." This Method of is not character drawing; it is caricature. caricature. Nevertheless, no one who reads Dickens can help being grateful to the man whose work not only gives us amusement but is all aglow with good will and kindness.

Dickens was an intense and constant worker. "I am become incapable of rest," he said. Not only did he do a vast amount of work, but he threw his Dickens as whole self into every book. Little Nell was a worker. so real to her creator that after writing of her death, he walked the streets of London all night, feeling as if he had really lost a beloved child friend. Long lives do not go with such work as this and Dickens died, almost at his desk, at the age of fifty-eight.

William Makepeace Thackeray, 1811-1863. In 1836, when Dickens was about to begin the *Pickwick Papers*, the artist who was to illustrate them died; and a young man offered himself as a substitute, but was

not accepted. This was William Makepeace Thackeray, who was to be counted as one of the four great novelists of the Victorian Age. His early life was unlike that of Dickens, for, born in India, he was sent to England to be educated, and had all the advantages of school and university. Just what he should do with himself was not easy to decide; but he had artistic ability and he made up his mind to study art. About the time when he came to the decision that he had not the talent to be as great an artist as he had hoped, his fortune was lost. Then he began to contribute to several magazines; and as if laughing at himself for having even thought of being a famous artist, he signed his articles "Michael Angelo Titmarsh."

Thackeray's fame was of slower growth than Dickens's. People read his *Great Hoggarty Diamond* in *Fraser's Magazine* and his *Book of Snobs* in *Punch*; they were amused and interested, but they did not lie awake at night longing for the next number. Publishers did not contend wildly for his manuscripts, and he was sometimes asked to shorten those that he presented. Dickens had an unfailing good nature and cheerfulness and a healthy confidence in himself almost from the first that swept his readers along with him. Thackeray was not so cheery, and he was not quite so sure of himself or of his audience. Again, people like to be amused. When Dickens made fun of his characters, he laughed at them with the utmost frankness, and every one laughed with him. When Thackeray disapproved, he wrote satirically; and satire is not so easy to see and not so amusing to every one as open ridicule. Dickens's pathos, too,

was much more marked than Thackeray's. For these reasons Thackeray's fame grew slowly.

In 1847-1848 he wrote *Vanity Fair*. Now Thackeray greatly admired Fielding, and oddly enough, this book had somewhat the same relation to Dickens's novels that Fielding's *Joseph Andrews* had to *Pamela*.

Dickens always had heroes and heroines, and they were always good. They might be thrown among wicked people, but they were never led astray by bad company. Thackeray declared that *Vanity Fair* had no hero. Its heroine, Becky Sharp, is bad. Her badness and cleverness stand out in bolder relief from contrast with Amelia's goodness and dulness. The book is a satire on social life,

but it is a kindly satire. Like Shakespeare, Thackeray, has charity for every one; and even in the case of Becky, he does not fail to let us see how much circumstances have done to make her what she is.

Besides novels Thackeray also wrote lectures on *The English Humourists* and on *The Four Georges*.

He wrote some merry burlesques, one on *Ivanhoe* called *Rebecca and Rowena*, wherein Rowena marries Ivanhoe but makes him wretched by her jealousy of Rebecca. His best novel is *Henry Esmond*, a historical romance of the eighteenth century; but in *The Newcomes* is the character that comes nearest to every one's heart, the dear old Colonel who loses his fortune and is obliged

Vanity Fair.
1847-1848.



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

WILLIAM MAKEPEACE
THACKERAY,
1811-1863

Henry Esmond.
1852.
The Newcomes.
1853.

to live on the charity of the Brotherhood of the Gray Friars. If Thackeray had written nothing else, his picturing of the exquisite simplicity and self-respecting dignity with which Colonel Newcome accepts the only life that is open to him, would have been enough to prove his genius. This is the way he describes the Colonel's death :

"Just as the last bell struck, a peculiar sweet smile shone over his face, and he lifted up his head a little, and quickly said 'Adsum' and fell back. It was the word we used at school when names were called ; and, lo, he whose heart was as that of a little child had answered to his name, and stood in the presence of his Maker."

"George Eliot," 1819-1880. Mary Ann Evans



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

GEORGE ELIOT,
1819-1880

Cross, much better known as "George Eliot," was only a few years younger than Dickens and Thackeray ; but the mass of their work was done before she wrote her earliest novel. Her first thirty-two years were spent in Shakespeare's county of Warwickshire. She was always a student ; and, although she left school at sixteen, she went on with French and German and music. She also studied Greek and Hebrew.

When she was twenty-seven years old she translated a German work. This brought her much praise. She began to write essays, and in 1851 she left the house that had been made lonely by the death of her father and went to London as

Transla-
tion.

assistant editor of the *Westminster Review*. It was still six years before she attempted fiction; and even then the attempt was not an idea of her own. She felt very doubtful of her ability to succeed, and probably hesitated longer about sending her *Scenes from Clerical Life* to Blackwood's than about forwarding her first essay to a publisher. She could hardly believe her own eyes when she read the admiring notices that appeared from all directions. There was no question that she was no longer to be a writer of essays, but of novels; and two years later *Adam Bede* came out. Then there was not only increased admiration but a curiosity that was determined to be gratified, for no one knew who was the author of either book. Carlyle was convinced that it was a man, but Dickens was one of the first to believe that it was a woman. Her next volume, *The Mill on the Floss*, tells us much of her life as a child. Not at all like Maggie of the *Mill* is the little heroine of her following book, *Silas Marner*, the story of a miser who is brought back to love and happiness by the tiny golden-haired child who made her way into his lonely cottage.

George Eliot wrote no more books about her childhood, and we never again come as near her own life as in *The Mill on the Floss*. She wrote now a historical novel, *Romola*; now a story of English life, *Middlemarch*, and other works. In one way her novels may be said to have the same theme; the chief character longs for a nobler and better life than he has, and at last, after many efforts, he finds it. He who does wrong is punished; but with all her exactness of justice, she

never fails to make us see that the temptations to which one yields are real to him, however feeble they may be to others. "When I had finished it," said Mrs Carlyle of *Adam Bede*, "I found myself in charity with the whole human race." George Eliot's characters grow. Scott's *Ivanhoe* and *Rebecca* and *Rowena* are exactly the same at the end of the book as at the beginning; but *Maggie Tulliver* and *Adam* and *Silas* are altered by years and events. We must admit that her later novels have less freshness and beauty and humour than the earlier; but the novelist who pictures even one phase of human life as exactly, as thoughtfully, and as sympathetically as George Eliot must ever be counted among the greatest.

George Meredith, 1828-1909, is the last of our four great novelists of the Victorian Age, and perhaps he will prove to be the greatest of them all. But he will never be the most widely read, and he will never be the most popular, especially among young people, for it is more true of him than it is of any of the others whom we have mentioned that he did not write his stories for the stories' sake. His novels were largely psychological; that is, he was far more concerned with the underlying motives of the actions of his characters, and with their wide-spreading and inevitable effects, than he was with the actions themselves. This is one reason why it is difficult to follow the thread of some of Meredith's plots; but another reason why his books are often hard reading is that he was also a poet, and he had a habit of applying poetic methods to his fiction. He often wrote as though he imagined that his reader could see as much of the intricacies of the character he was dissecting

as he could himself, and thinking thus he would pile one metaphor on to another until the reader quite excusably finds it hard to follow him. But one can rest assured that when one *has* read and re-read a difficult passage of Meredith's until its meaning has become plain one has found something well worth the trouble of searching for, and which one will never forget.

Meredith's chief works are *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel* (1859), *The Egoist* (1879), *Evan Harrington* (1861), *Bianchamp's Career* (1876), and *Diana of the Crossways* (1885)

In his later novels his style became more and more involved and obscure, but these five rank among the very greatest in the whole of English literature. In all of them Meredith's humour, pathos, and love of nature, are very strong, but with regard to his humour one must remember what he himself said in his *Essay on Comedy* (1897) — "The test of true comedy is that it shall awaken thoughtful laughter." His humour, unlike Dickens's is never used for its own sake, and with it he pours an often scornful light on the absurdities and excesses of mankind.

Thomas Babington Macaulay, 1800-1859. The most prominent essayists between 1832 and 1900 were Macaulay, Carlyle, Ruskin, and Arnold.

Thomas Babington Macaulay must have been as interesting when a small boy as he was when a man.



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd

GEORGE MEREDITH,
1828-1909

He was hardly more than a baby when he read anything and everything, and his memory was so amazing that he could repeat verbatim whatever he had read. He was the busiest of children; for before he was

Precocity. eight, he had written an epitome of general history, and an essay on the Christian religion which he hoped would convert the heathen, besides

epics, hymns, and various other poems. He was always able to talk in grown-up fashion. The story is told that when he was only four years of age, some hot tea was spilled over his legs. After various remedies had been applied, he was asked if he felt better. "Thank you, madam," the little fellow replied gravely, "the agony is abated." The great charm



LORD MACAULAY,
1800-1859

of the wonderful boy was that he never seemed to notice that he was any brighter than other boys. He fancied that older people knew everything, and was inclined to feel humble because he did not know more. He had delightful rambles with the other children over a great common broken by ponds and bushes and hillocks and gravel pits, for every one of which he had a name and a legend. To go away to school and leave all these good times and his eight brothers and sisters was a severe trial, and he begged most piteously to come home for just one day before the vacation.

As he grew older, he no longer learned by heart without the least effort ; but even then, a man who could recite the whole of *Pilgrim's Progress* and *Paradise Lost* had small reason to complain of a poor memory, and he seemed to read books by simply turning the pages. After taking his degree he studied law, wrote a few articles for the magazines, and in 1825, when he was just twenty-five years of age, published in the *Edinburgh Review* his *Essay on Milton*. Before the next number of the *Review* was out, the young contributor was a famous man. He had done something that no one else had succeeded in doing ; he had written in a style that was not only clear and strong and interesting, but was brilliant. Every sentence seemed to be the crystallization of a thought. Every sentence was so closely connected with what preceded it that the reader could almost feel that he was thinking along with the writer and that his own thoughts were being put into words.

Just as in Addison's day, each political party was on the watch for young men of literary talent, and Macaulay soon had an opportunity to enter Parliament. A few years later he was given a government position in India with a salary that enabled him to return within three years with means sufficient to justify him in devoting himself to literature. Through the years between the publication of his *Essay on Milton* and 1849, his literary fame was on the increase. He did most valuable work in connexion with the codification of Indian criminal law, he wrote a number of essays, the famous ones on Johnson and on Warren Hastings among them. He wrote his

spirited *Lays of Ancient Rome*, and he read deeply English, Greek, Latin, but especially English history; for he had planned no less a work than a history of England from 1688 to the French Revolution. In 1848 his first volume came out, and then Macaulay learned what popularity meant. Novels were forgotten, for every one was reading the *History of England*. Edition after edition was issued. It was translated into many languages, and within a few weeks after its publication in England, six different editions were published in the United States, and one firm alone sold 40,000 copies. As other volumes followed, the sales became even greater. In 1856, his publishers gave him a cheque for £20,000, "part of what will be due me in December," he wrote in his journal. Brilliant as the work is, it has been severely criticized, for Macaulay was too intense in his feelings and too "cock-sure of everything," as was said of him, to be impartial; but it is a wonderful succession of the most vivid pictures and as interesting as a romance. Honours came to him thick and fast, and soon the Queen raised him to the peerage. He worked away industriously, hoping to complete his history; but before the fifth volume had come to its end he died, sitting at his library table before an open book.

Thomas Carlyle, 1795-1881. Never were four writers more unlike than our four essayists; and the second, Thomas Carlyle, was unlike everybody else; he was in a class by himself. His father was a Scotchman, a sensible, self-respecting stone-mason who had high hopes for his eldest son. When the boy had entered the University of Edinburgh, the way seemed to lie open for him to become a clergyman; but before the

time came for him to take his degree, he decided that the pulpit was not the place for him. His friends must have felt a little out of patience, for he seemed to have no very definite idea of what he did want. After teaching a while, he concluded that he did not want *that* in any case, and set to work to win his living from the world by writing. The world gave no sign of caring particularly for what he wrote or for his translations from the German; and when he was thirty-one years of age, he seemed little further advanced on the road to literary glory than when he was twenty-five. In his thirty-first year he married Jane Welsh, a witty, clever young lady who was not without literary ability of her own. She had strong confidence in her husband's powers and a vast ambition for him to succeed. There was little income, and the only course seemed to be to go to her small farm at Craigenputtock; and there they lived for six years a most lonely life. Out of the solitude and dreariness came *Sartor Resartus*, "The Tailor Retailored." The foundation of the book is the notion that as man is within clothes, so the thought of God is within man and nature. The work did not meet a warm reception. "When is that stupid series of articles by the crazy tailor going to end?" asked one of the subscribers to *Fraser's*, the magazine in which it was published; and many people agreed with him, for while the pages were glowing with poetical feeling and sparkling with satire,



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

THOMAS CARLYLE,
1795-1881

*Sartor
Resartus.*
1833-1834.

the style was harsh and jagged and exasperating. Carlyle manufactured new words, and he used old ones in a fashion that seemed to his readers unpardonably ridiculous. It was very slowly that one after another found that the book had a message, a ringing cry to "Work while it is called To-day," and that its earnestness of purpose was arousing courage and breathing inspiration.

Carlyle decided that it was best for him to live in London, and in 1834 Craigenputtock was abandoned.

Three years later, his *History of the French Revolution* was published,—not a clear story by any means, but a series of flashlight pictures so vivid and realistic that at last recognition came to him. For nearly thirty years he continued to write. Such keen, powerful sentences as these came from his pen :

"No man, it has been said, is a hero to his valet ; and this is probably true ; but the fault is at least as likely to be the valet's as the hero's."

"No mortal has a right to wag his tongue, much less to wag his pen, without saying something."

Here are some of his definitions :

"A dandy is a clothes-wearing man,—a man whose trade, office, and existence consist in the wearing of clothes."

"Genius means the transcendent capacity of taking trouble, first of all."

These sentences show Carlyle in his simplest style ; but he was capable of such expressions as this :

"The all of things is an infinite conjugation of the verb—'To do.'"

London he called "That monstrous tuberosity of civilized life."

His *Heroes and Hero-Worship* appeared first as lectures. Fifteen years of hard work gave the world his *History of the Life and Times of Frederick II, commonly called Frederick the Great*. Then came honours that would have rejoiced the heart of the father who had believed in his boy. Carlyle never forgot that father, and of him he wrote, "Could I write my Books as he built his Houses, walk my way so manfully through this shadow-world, and leave it with so little blame, it were more than all my hopes." What Carlyle looked upon as his greatest honour was his being chosen Lord Rector of the University of Edinburgh; but the joy was taken away from him almost before he had tasted it, for he had barely finished his inaugural address before word was brought of the death of his wife. He lived until 1881, fifteen years after meeting with this loss. During the year before his death, a cheap edition of *Sartor Resartus* was issued, and 30,000 copies were sold within a few weeks. Carlyle had found his audience.

John Ruskin, 1819-1900. John Ruskin was a quiet, gentle little lad, who was brought up with books and pictures, and travel and comforts of all sorts, watched over by the most loving of parents, but instantly punished for the slightest disobedience. His parents, like Carlyle's, expected their son to be a clergyman. He grew up with the thought that he should be a preacher, and a preacher he was all his life, though he did not talk in pulpits but in books. His earliest books were about art. *Modern Painters* was their name, and the first volume came out soon after he had taken his degree at Oxford. His text was the landscape painting of

History of
Frederick
II. 1858-
1865.

Modern
Painters.
1843-1860.

Turner, whom he declared to be "the greatest painter of all time. However that might be, there was no question that the young man of twenty-four was the greatest art critic of his time. For nearly twenty years he worked on the five volumes of *Modern Painters*, writing also during that time several books

on architecture. He almost always gave Stones of Venice fanciful titles to his writings, and one of his earliest architectural works he called *Stones of Venice*. Ruskin was eager to have all, even the

Interest in humblest of working-men, enjoy art and beauty; but he found

that it was very hard for a man to produce works of art or even to enjoy beauty when he was not sure of his next meal. Such thoughts as these led Ruskin to write *Unto This Last* and *Munera Pulveris*, wherein he discussed fearlessly the relations between rich and poor, employer and employed, etc. His ideas were looked

Plato, Emery Walker 1811.

JOHN RUSKIN,
1819-1900

upon as revolutionary, and the magazine in which *Unto This Last* was coming out refused to continue publishing the chapters. In Ruskin's time there were better opportunities to make fortunes than there had been before, and therefore the struggle for wealth was increasingly eager. He preached that not competition but Christian thoughtfulness was the proper spirit of trade; that idleness was guilt, but that labour should be made happy by the pleasures of art and the joy that comes from the ability to appreciate nature. These are the thoughts

Unto This Last. 1860.
Munera Pulveris.
1863.

that leaven all his subsequent books, though he wrote on many different subjects, ever giving whimsically poetical titles; for example, *Deucalion* treats of "the lapse of waves and the life of stones"; *Sesame and Lilies* treats of "Kings' Treasures," by which he means books and reading, and of "Queens' Gardens," that is, the education and rightful work of women. His final book, which is largely autobiographical, is called *Præterita*.

Deucalion.
1875-1883.
*Sesame
and Lilies.*
1865.
Præterita.
1885-1889.

Even the people who did not agree with Ruskin's theories could not help admiring his style and the wealth of imagination with which he beautified his simplest statements. His richness of imagery is not like Browning's, however—so overpowering that the thought is lost. With Ruskin the thought is always present, always easy to find, and very often made beautiful. All this he accomplishes with the simplest Saxon words, for a generous share of his vocabulary came from the Bible, which in his childhood days he was required to read over and over, and long passages of which he was made to learn by heart. This is the way he describes the river Rhone:

*Ruskin's
style.*

There were pieces of waves that danced all day as if Perdita were looking on to learn; there were little streams that skipped like lambs and leaped like chamois; there were pools that shook the sunshine all through them, and were rippled in layers of overlaid ripples, like crystal sand; there were currents that twisted the light into golden braids, and inlaid the threads with turquoise enamel; there were strips of stream that had certainly above the lake been mill-streams, and were looking busily for mills to turn again; there were shoots of streams that had once shot fearfully into the air, and now sprang up again laughing that they had only fallen a foot or two; and in the midst of all the gay glittering and eddied lingering, the noble bearing by of the midmost depth, so mighty, yet so terrorless and harmless, with its swallows

skimming instead of petrels, and the dear old decrepit town as safe in the embracing sweep of it as if it were set in a brooch of sapphire.

People might well admire such a manner of writing; and Ruskin once said half sadly, "All my life I have been talking to the people, and they have listened, not to what I say, but to how I say it." This is not true, however, for in art, in ethics, even in sociology, he has found a large audience of thoughtful, appreciative listeners.

Matthew Arnold, 1822-1888. Matthew Arnold



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

MATTHEW ARNOLD,
1822-1888

was the son of Dr Arnold, Headmaster of Rugby, the "Doctor" of *Tom Brown's School Days*. Ruskin was free to lead his life as he would. Arnold was a busy public official, for from his twenty-ninth year till three years before his death he was Inspector of Schools and could give to literature only the spare bits of his time. Yet from those broken days came forth both poetry and prose that give him

a high rank. He loved the Greek literature, and in his poems there is much of the Greek restraint which does for his poetry what high-bred courtesy does for manners. In his *Forsaken Merman*, for instance, the one of all his poems, perhaps, that appeals most to children and those like them, there is not a word of outspoken grief; but all the merman's loneliness and longing are in the oft-repeated line,

Children, dear, was it yesterday?

Some readers are chilled by his reserve; but to those who sympathize, it suggests rather a feeling that is too strong — or too personal — to express itself in words. The poem that he wrote in memory of his father after a visit to Rugby Chapel fairly throbs with love and suppressed sorrow, but he writes bravely:

O strong soul, by what shore
 Tarriest thou now? For that force
 Surely has not been left vain!
 Somewhere, surely, afar,
 In the sounding labour-house vast
 Of being, is practised that strength,
 Zealous, beneficent, firm!

As a writer of prose, Matthew Arnold's special work is criticism of books and of life. His trumpet gives no uncertain sound. As he says, "We must accustom ourselves to a high standard and to a strict judgment." It is he who tells us that if we keep in mind lines and expressions of the great masters, they will serve as a touchstone to show us what poetry is real. This he says in his essay *On the Study of Poetry*, and it shows what clear, definite, helpful thoughts he has for those who go to him for advice or for pleasure.

In this latest age of English literature, many poets have written well; two of them, Browning and Tennyson, are counted by all as of the first rank, while many critics would add to this select number the name of Algernon Charles Swinburne.

Robert Browning, 1812-1889. One of the most interesting of Robert Browning's writings is a letter which says, "I love your verses with all my heart,

Rugby
 Chapel,
 written
 1857.

Prose
 criticism.

On the
 Study of
 Poetry.
 1880.

dear Miss Barrett." Miss Barrett was the author of several volumes of poems, many of them full of sympathy, of tender sentiment, and of religious trust,—poems of the sort that sink into the hearts of those who love a poem even without knowing why. One of these is *The Cry of the Children*, meaning the children who were toiling in mills and in mines. It pictures their sadness and weariness, and closes with the strong lines,

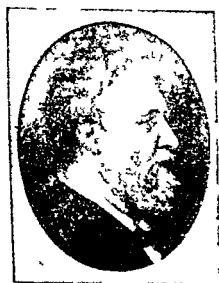
The Cry of
the Chil-
dren. 1841.
The
Rhyme
of the
Duchess
May.

But the child's sob in the silence curses deeper
Than the strong man in his wrath.

Another favourite is *The Rhyme of the Duchess May*, which ends with a good thought expressed with the poet's frequent disregard of rhyme :

And I smiled to think God's greatness flowed around our incom-
pleteness,
Round our restlessness, His rest.

The author had been an invalid for years, and she was able to see only a few people. She replied to Mr Browning's letter, "Sympathy is dear—very dear to me ; but the sympathy of a poet, and of such a poet, is the quintessence of sympathy!" It was four months before Miss Barrett was able to receive a call from Mr Browning, but at last they met. Some time later they were married ; and until the death of Mrs Browning, in 1861, they made their home in Italy,



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

ROBERT BROWNING,
1812-1889

—a home which was ideal in its love and happiness. Mr Browning had written much poetry, but it

was not nearly so famous as that of his wife. It was harder to understand; for some of it was on philosophical subjects, and some of it was dramatic. Sometimes it is not easy to tell how to classify a poem; his *Paracelsus*, for instance, might almost be called a drama, but it is nearly entirely made up of monologue. The simplest of his dramas is *Pippa Passes*. The young girl Pippa is a silk-winder who has but one holiday in the year. When the joyful morning has come, she names over the "Four Happiest" in the little town and says to herself,

I will pass each and see
their happiness
And envy none.

She "passes," first, by the house wherein is one of the "Happiest"; but Pippa does not know that this one and her lover have just committed a murder. As Pippa sings,

God's in his heaven—
All's right with the world,

the horror of their crime comes over them, and they repent of their evil. So the song of the pure little maiden touches the life of each one of the "Four

Paracel
sus. 1835.

Pippa
Passes
1841



Photo, Enery Walker, Ltd.

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING,
1806-1861

happiest", but the child goes to sleep wondering whether she could ever come near enough to the great folk to "do good or evil to them some slight way."

After their marriage both Mr and Mrs Browning

continued to write. Mrs Browning's most conspicuous work was *Aurora Leigh*, a novel in verse which discusses many sociological questions,—too many for either a novel or a poem,—and her beautiful *Sonnets from the Portuguese*, which were in reality not from the Portuguese, but straight from her own heart, and which tell with most exquisite delicacy the story of her love for her husband. Browning published two more volumes before the death of his wife, *Christmas Eve and Easter Day* and *Men and Women*. In 1868-9, more than thirty-five years after he began to write, he published *The Ring and the Book*. This is the story of an Italian murder, which in the course of the poem is related by a number of different persons. It met with a hearty reception, partly because it is not only a poem and a fine one but also because it is a wonderful picturing of the impression made by one act upon several dissimilar persons; and partly because in those thirty-five years Browning's admirers, consisting for a long time of one reader here and another one there, had increased until now there was an audience ready for him. Indeed, this audience was growing with amazing rapidity, partly because of his real merit, and partly because he sometimes wrote in most involved and obscure fashion. People who liked to think were pleased with the resistance of the more difficult poems; they liked to puzzle out the meaning.

Aurora
Leigh.
1856.

Sonnets
from the
Portu-
guese. 1850.

Christmas
Eve and
Easter
Day. 1850.
Men and
Women.
1855.
The Ring
and the
Book.
1868-1869.

Growth of
Brown-
ing's fame.

Others, many of whom did not like to think but did wish to be counted among the thinkers, hastened to buy Browning's poems and to join Browning clubs.

The best way for most people to enjoy these poems is not to struggle with some obscure and unimportant difficulty of phrase or of thought, but to read first what they like best, and find little by little what he has said that belongs to them especially. Read some of the shorter lyrics : *Prospice*, *The Lost Leader*, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*, that weird and fascinating rhyme for children, and *Rabbi Ben Esra*, with its magnificent :

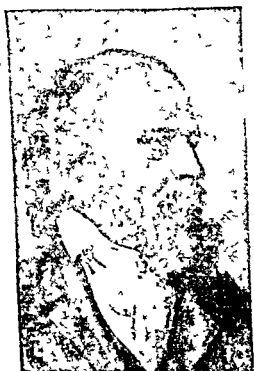
How to
enjoy
Browning.

Grow old along with me !
The best is yet to be.

Those two lines are the keynote of Browning's inspiration, his cheerful courage in looking at life and his robust confidence in the blessedness of the life that lies beyond. One cannot have too much of Browning.

Alfred Tennyson, 1809-1892. Neither is it possible to have too much of Tennyson, who, far more than Browning, was the representative poet of the Victorian Age. Two stories have been saved from Tennyson's childhood. One is of the five-year-old child tossing his arms in the blast and crying, " I hear a voice that's speaking in the wind." The other is of an older brother's reading a slateful of the little Alfred's verses and declaring judicially, " Yes, you can write." There were twelve of the Tennyson children. " They all wrote verses," said a neighbour ; and when Alfred was seventeen and one of his brothers a year older, they published a little book of verse. In 1828 Alfred entered Trinity College, Cambridge, and while

still there he published *Poems, Chiefly Lyrical*. These Poems, seem less like completed works than like the Chiefly first sketches of an artist for a picture. Lyrical. They are glimpses of the poet's talent, 1830. experiments in sound rather than expressions of thought. In 1833 he brought out a little Poems. volume which ought to have convinced who- 1833. ever glanced at it that a true poet had arisen, for here



ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON,
1809-1892

were not only such poems as *The May Queen* and *Lady Clara Vere de Vere*, which were sure to strike the popular fancy, but also *The Dream of Fair Women*, *The Lotos-Eaters*, and *The Lady of Shalott*. Criticism.

Nevertheless, the critics were severe; and this was perhaps the best thing that could

Poems. have happened to the 1842. young poet, for he set Recognition of his to work to study and genius. think. Nine years later

he brought out two more volumes, and then there was no question that he was the first poet of his time. The best known of these poems are his thrilling little song,—

Break, break, break,
On thy cold grey stones, O Sea!
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me,

and *Locksley Hall*. The latter has been read and recited and quoted and parodied, but it is not even yet worn out. Here are the two stanzas that were Tennyson's special favourites:

Love took up the glass of Time, and turn'd it in his glowing hands ;

Every moment, lightly shaken, ran itself in golden sands.

Love took up the harp of Life, and smote on all the chords with might ;

Smote the chord of Self, that, trembling, pass'd in music out of sight.

In these volumes, too, were *Morte d'Arthur* and snatches of poems on Galahad and Launcelot,— enough to show that Tennyson had found old Malory, and that the stories of King Arthur and the Round Table were haunting his mind. When *The Princess* came out, there was some criticism of the impossible story in a probable setting, of the mingling of the earnest and the burlesque, which the poet had not entirely forestalled by calling the poem *A Medley*. It is a very beautiful medley, however, and the songs which were interspersed in the later edition are most exquisite. Here are "Sweet and Low," "The splendour falls on castle walls," and others.

The Princess, a Medley.
1847.

The year 1850 was a marked season for Tennyson. It was the year of his marriage to the lady from whom financial reasons had separated him for twelve years ; it was the year of publication of *In Memoriam* and of his appointment as Laureate. *In Memoriam* was called forth by the death of

In Memoriam.
1850.

Arthur Henry Hallam, Tennyson's best-loved college friend, which took place seventeen years earlier. It is a collection of short poems, gleams of his thoughts of his friend, changing as time passed from "large grief," from questioning, "How fares it with the happy dead?" from tender memories of Hallam's words and ways— from all these to the hour when he who grieved could rest—

And hear at times a sentinel
 Who moves about from place to place
 And whispers to the worlds of space,
 In the deep night, that all is well.

The duties of the Laureate have vanished, but there is a mild expectation that he will manifest some interest in the greater events of the kingdom by Laureate. an occasional poem. Tennyson fulfilled this expectation generously, and his Laureate poems have a clear ring of sincerity. They range all the way from his welcome to the lady who was afterwards Queen Alexandra,—

Sea-kings' daughter from over the sea,
 to his superb *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington* :

Bury the Great Duke
 With an empire's lamentation,
 Let us bury the Great Duke
 To the noise of the mourning of a mighty nation.

The *Idylls of the King*.
 1859-1885. Not only sincerity, but tender respect and sympathy, unite in his dedication of the *Idylls of the King* to the memory of Prince Albert :

These to His Memory—since he held them dear,
 Pérchance as finding there unconsciously
 Some image of himself.

To the Queen in her sadness he says :

Break not, O woman's-heart, but still endure ;
 Break not, for thou art Royal, but endure.

In the *Idylls* Tennyson had come to his kingdom ; for the "dim, rich" legends were after his own heart. Here was a thread of story which he could alter as he

would ; here were love, valour, innocence, faithlessness, treachery, religious ecstasy, an earthly journey with a heavenly recompense. Here were opportunities for the brilliant and varied ornament in which he delighted, for all the beauties of description, and for a character drawing as strong as it was delicate.

In the *Idylls* Tennyson shows his power to present the complex in character ; but in *Enoch Arden* he draws with no less skill a simple fisherman who through no fault of his own meets life-long sorrow and loneliness. Enoch is wrecked on a desert island, and his wife, believing him dead, finally yields and marries his friend. After many years Enoch finds his way home, but his home is his no more, and he prays :

*Enoch
Arden.
1864.*

Uphold me, Father, in my loneliness
A little longer ! aid me, give me strength
Not to tell her, never to let her know.
Help me not to break in upon her peace.

So simply, so naturally is the story told that the whole force of the silent tragedy, of the greatness of the fisherman hero, is hardly realized till the triumph of the closing words,—

So past the strong, heroic soul away.

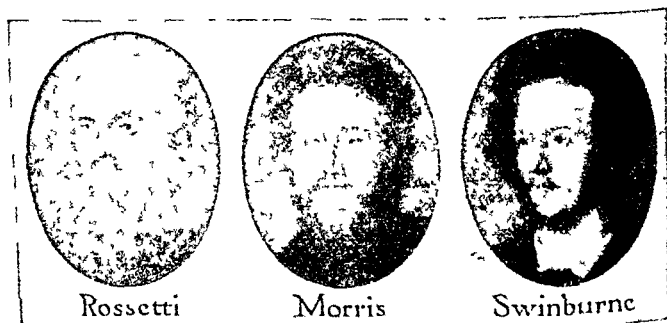
Yielding to the fascination which the drama has for men of literary genius, Tennyson wrote several plays, most of them historical, but this was not his field. The characters are not lifelike, and, though the plays read well, none of them, except perhaps *The Falcon*, acts well.

*Tenny-
son's
drama.*

Among his last work was *Crossing the Bar*. Every true poet has a message. His was of faith and trust,

and nothing could be more fitting as his *envoy* than this wonderful lyrical gem

The age of the pen. The nineteenth century has been called the age of steam and electricity; but perhaps a better name would be the age of the pen, for almost every one writes. In this mass of literary work there is much excellence; but, leaving out the greatest authors, only a prophet could select "the few,



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the immortal names that were not born to die." The historical value of these many writers is unknown, their intrinsic value is undecided; criticism is variable, and is prejudiced by their nearness. Nevertheless, it is hard to pass over the "Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood," such a group of poets as William Morris with his *Earthly Paradise*, Dante Gabriel Rossetti with the weird charm of his *Blessed Damosel*; and Algernon Charles Swinburne, whose verses, ever strong and intense, reveal the touch of a master of all music.

Apart from the historians already named, the greater number of writers of history have taken England for their theme. John Richard Green, in

his *Short History of the English People*, gave new life to the men of the olden times; Edward Augustus Freeman, ever accurate and painstaking, wrote of the *Norman Conquest*; James Anthony Froude was, like Macaulay, a partisan, and therefore not always to be trusted in his estimates of men, but, like Macaulay, he possessed the "historical imagination," which is, after all, little more than the ability to remember that men of the past were as human as men of the present.

Among scientific writings Charles Darwin's *Origin of Species*, Sir Charles Lyell's *Principles of Geology*, and the works of Tyndall and Huxley have been most widely read. The names of essayists and critics are many. Walter Pater with his harmonious sentences, John Henry Newman with his exquisitely polished diction, are well known and are well worthy of honour. Especially hopeless is the effort to make a satisfactory choice among the novelists. Not every one would dream of attempting a scientific treatise or a volume of even second-rate poetry; but who is there, from Disraeli, the British premier, to the young girl whose graduation gown is still fresh, that does not feel the longing to produce a novel? Edward Bulwer Lytton, Lord Lytton, won fame in the 'thirties with his *Last Days of Pompeii*. About the middle of the century appeared Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre*, which won far more attention than the critic of to-day is inclined to accord it, because it was one of the earliest of the modern novels of home life. A few years later, Elizabeth Cleghorn Gaskell wrote *Cranford*, a charmingly quaint and delicate picture of life in a village. Charles Kingsley's second novel, *Alton Locke*, gave vivid descriptions of life in London workshops. *Westward Ho!* whose scene was laid in the days of Queen

Elizabeth, is called his best prose work. His poems are of the sort that linger in the memory. "Three fishers went sailing away to the west" will long be a favourite. Among his best loved work is *Water Babies*, that fascinating mingling of a delightful story for children with nature study and satire. Another child's book that can hardly help being a favourite so long as there are children to enjoy it is the *Alice in Wonderland* of "Lewis Carroll." The story is told that Queen Victoria once asked him if he would not send her another of his delightful books, and that he responded by presenting her with a mathematical treatise; for "Lewis Carroll" when not telling stories was Charles



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

CHARLOTTE BRONTË,
1816-1855

Lutwidge Dodgson, a learned professor of mathematics. Anthony Trollope was the author of many novels, of which *Barchester Towers* has been the favourite. Probably no one ever sat up all night to see how any one of his stories was going to end, but they are faithful pictures of the life of his time. Charles Reade wrote far more thrilling stories, *Put Yourself in His Place* and others, which aimed vigorous blows at some social injustice, as well as *The Cloister and the Hearth*, which made the Middle Ages live again. In the 'eighties appeared Robert Louis Stevenson's *Treasure Island*, which soon won the popular ear. It is purely a tale of adventure, and it apparently aims at nothing but to tell an interesting story with that close attention to style for which its

author was famous. A man of many gifts was Stevenson, and those who care nothing for such tales as *Kidnapped*, *The Master of Ballantrae*, or *David Balfour* must, nevertheless, yield to the charm of his essays and the winsomeness of his verse for children. Within the last twenty years novels have made their appearance by the hundred. Who can say whether the excellence which we see in many of them is really enduring excellence or only some quality so specially congenial to our own times that it seems excellent to us? Whether these later works are strong and lasting currents in the stream of England's literature or whether they are only eddies and ripples, it is too early to decide.



Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd
ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON,
1850-1894

For twelve hundred years or longer this stream has flowed, now narrow, now broad, but ever moving onward. The epic swept on from the simple thought and primeval virtues of *Beowulf* to the harmonious organ tones of *Paradise Lost*. The drama, beginning with the mystery play, came to its height under the magic touch of Shakespeare, and presents not only action but that intangible thing, thought, and development of character. The earliest native lyric is known to us in a single poem, *Widsith*. To-day lyric poetry means the glorious outburst of song of the Elizabethan times; it means such poems as Browning's *Prospice*, wherein the physical courage of the viking has become the religious courage of the Christian; and it means such

delicate, thoughtful, sympathetic love of nature and such exquisiteness of expression as are shown in the works of Burns and Wordsworth and Tennyson. Prose, at first as heavy and rough and clumsy as a weapon of some savage tribe, has become, in the hand of its best masters, through centuries of hammering and filing and tempering as keen as a Damascus blade. History, which was at first the bare statement of certain occurrences, has become a vivid panorama of events, combined with profound study of their causes and their results. Biography is no longer the throwing of a preternatural halo around its subject; the ideal biography of to-day is that which, uncoloured by the prejudice of the writer, presents the man himself as interpreted by his deeds and words. The novel is the form of literary expression belonging specially to the present age; and because of its very nearness to us in time and in interest, the judgment of its merits is difficult. Of two points, however, we may be sure: first, that to centre in one character of a book all interest and all careful workmanship is a mark of degeneracy; second, that to picture life faithfully, but with the faithfulness of the artist and not of the camera, is a mark of excellence. It is this requirement of faithfulness to truth which is after all the most worthy literary "note" of our age. The history must be accurate; the biography must be unprejudiced; the reasoning of the essay must be without fallacy; the poem must flash out a genuine thought; and the novel that would endure must be true to life. Whatever the future of England's literature may be, it has at least the foundation of honest effort and an inexorable demand for sincerity and truth.

CHAPTER XIII

THE POETRY OF AMERICA

WE are so near to the beginning of American literature that to write its history is an especially difficult undertaking. Too little time has passed to trace influences and tendencies, perhaps even to estimate justly the value of the work whose strongest appeal is not to the present. During the last century, our world has moved so swiftly that the light has flashed now upon one writer, now upon another. Who can foretell upon which the noontide of to-morrow will shine most brilliantly? In every decade many writers have come forward whose names it seems ungracious to omit. Wherever the lines are drawn, they will appear to some one an arbitrary and unreasonable barrier. Here we make no pretensions to completeness; we have only attempted to deal with the main currents of American literature, and with only its brightest ornaments, and if a perusal of the following chapters leads the reader to feel a friendship for the authors mentioned, and a wish to know more of them and their writings, our object will have been accomplished.

The poetry of America may be said to begin with William Cullen Bryant. Before his time the inhabitants of the United States had been too busy wresting the land first from Nature and the Indians, and then

from the Mother Country, to pay much attention to poets, even had there been any ; and so we find while in the Colonial Period poetry was practically non-existent, in the Revolutionary Period it confined itself almost entirely to patriotic songs and political squibs.

With **William Cullen Bryant**, 1794-1878, however, American poetry suddenly and gloriously sprang to life. Bryant was born in Cummington, Massachusetts, the son of a country doctor. He was brought up almost as strictly as if he had been born among the newly arrived Puritans a century and a half earlier. There was much to enjoy in the quiet village life, but there was little money to spare ; good books, however, had a habit of finding their way to Bryant's

home, and the boy was encouraged by his father to read poetry and to write it. Some

of this encouragement was perhaps hardly wise ; for when he produced a satirical poem, *The Embargo*, the father straightway had it put into print.

When Bryant was sixteen, he went to Williams College for a short time, afterwards returning home to study law. He did not forget poetry, how-

ever, and then it was that *Thanatopsis* was written. Six years later, Dr Bryant came upon it by accident, recognized its greatness

at a glance, and without a word to his son took the manuscript to the offices of the *North American Review*, which had recently been established. Tradition says that the editor hurried away to show his colleagues what a "find" he had made ; and that one of them, Richard Henry Dana, declared there was some fraud in the matter, for no one in America could write such verse. The least appreciative reader of the poem could hardly help

The
Embargo.
1808.

Thanatop-
sis written,
1811; pub-
lished,
1817.

feeling the solemn majesty, the organ-tone rhythm, the wide sweep of noble thought. *Thanatopsis* is a masterpiece. It went to every corner of the country; and wherever it went it was welcomed as America's first great poem. Meanwhile, its author was working conscientiously at his profession; but fortunately he had spare hours for poetry, and it was about this time that he wrote his beautiful lines, *To a Water-fowl*. This poem came straight from his own heart, for he was troubled about his future, and, as he said, felt "very forlorn and desolate." The last stanza,—

He who, from zone to zone,
Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone,
Will lead my steps aright,—

gave to him the comfort that it has given to many others, and he went on bravely. These two poems, with a few others, were published in a slender little volume in 1821.

Bryant was recognized as the first poet in the land, but neither his poems nor his law business brought him a sufficient income. In 1825 he took up journalism in New York and four years later became editor of *The Evening Post*, a position he held for nearly fifty years. As an editor, he was absolutely independent, but always dignified and calm; he held his paper to a high literary standard, and during those years wrote a number of poems that American literature could ill afford to lose, besides translating the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* in blank verse. During his long life other poets arose in the land. They wrote on many themes; he wrote on few save death and nature. Their verses were often more warm-

hearted, more passionate than Bryant's, and often they were easier reading; but Bryant never lost the place of honour and dignity that he had so fairly earned. He is the Father of American Poetry; and it is well for American poetry that it can look back to the calmness and strength and poise of such a founder.

Next in order of date come the three New England poets, Longfellow, Lowell, and Holmes. In the early lives of these three there was a somewhat remarkable similarity. They were all descendants of New England families of culture and standing. They grew up in good homes and were surrounded by people of education and intellect. They were thorough bookmen, and each held a professorship at Harvard. Here the resemblance ends, for never were three poets more unlike in work and disposition than "the Cambridge Poets."

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, 1807-1882, born at Portland, Maine, had all the advantages of books, college, and home culture; and he made such good use of them that shortly after leaving Bowdoin College he was offered, and he accepted, its professorship of modern languages. He spent three years in Europe preparing for the position, which he held for six years, and then became professor at Harvard. He had already published verse, and some of his pupils had read his *Outre Mer*, a graceful and poetical mingling of bits of travel, stories, and translations.

Up to 1839 Longfellow had published little but translations and a few school-books, but in that year *Hyperion*, came *Hyperion*, a prose romance, more or less autobiographical, and *Voices of the Night*.
Voices of the Night. 1839. In the latter volume were translations from six or seven languages. There were also *A Psalm*

of *Life* and *The Reaper and the Flowers*. These have had over seventy years of hard wear, but there is still a message for mankind in such lines as :

Let us, then, be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate ;
Still achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labour and to wait.

The lovers of poetry were watching the young professor at Harvard. What would be his next work? Longfellow's next volume contained, among other poems, *The Wreck of the Hesperus* and *The Skeleton in Armour*. Ballads and Other Poems. 1840

Thus far, his writings had been thoughtful and beautiful, but in the latter there was something more; there was a stronger flight of the imagination, there was life, action, a story to tell, and generous promise for the future—a promise that was well kept in his narrative poems, *Evangeline*, *The Courtship of Miles Standish*, and *The Song of Hiawatha*, which have been favourites from the



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW,
1807-1882

first. He translated Dante's *Divine Comedy* and wrote several dramas. His translations were literal, but never bald and prosy, for he gave to every phrase the master touch that makes it glow. Few, if any, poems are more American and more

Translations.

patriotic than his *Building of the Ship*, with its impassioned apostrophe :

Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State !
Sail on, O Union, strong and great !

Nevertheless, Longfellow loved the Old World, and in his translations he brought to his own country the culture of lands across the sea, thus setting up a standard for the youthful literature of the New World.

Longfellow knew how to beautify his verse with
Literary style. exquisite imagery, which nearly always
flashed a light upon the thought, as in—

Feeling is deep and still ; and the word that floats on the surface
Is as the tossing buoy, that betrays where the anchor is hidden.

He could produce beauty from the simplest materials, as in his *Rainy Day*, when he chose a time-worn subject, made a time-worn comparison, and used in his fifteen lines but fifty-six different words, all everyday words and five-sixths of them monosyllables ! His writings are so smooth and graceful that one sometimes overlooks their strength. *Evangeline*, for instance, is "A Tale of Love in Acadie," but it is also a picture of indomitable purpose and unfaltering resolution. *Miles Standish* is more than a charming Puritan idyl, centring in an archly demure, "Why don't you speak for yourself, John?" It is a maiden's fearless obedience to the voice of her heart, and a strong man's noble conquest of himself. Longfellow's keynote is sympathy. When sorrow came to him, his pity went out to all who suffered. In the midst of his own grief, he wrote :

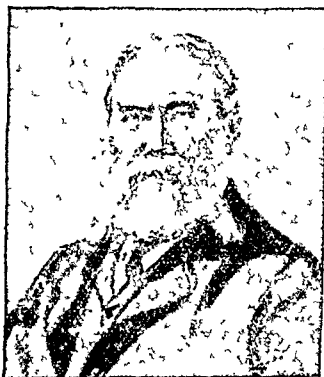
There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has one vacant chair.

In his *Hiawatha* he introduced a Finnish metre, in *Evangeline* he first succeeded in using the classic hexameter in English. Thus he gave new tools to the wrights of English verse; but it was a far greater glory to be able to speak directly to the hearts of the people. This gift, together with his blameless life, won for him an affection so reverent that, even while he lived, thousands spoke his name with the tenderness usually given only to those who are no longer among us.

James Russell Lowell, 1819-1891. Lowell's early life was spent amid most comfortable surroundings, and while his *Vision of Sir Launfal* shows how well he learned the out-of-door world, his essays prove how familiar he became with the world of books.

He was born at Cambridge, near Boston, and was sent to Harvard College there. He read every volume he could get hold of not required by the curriculum, and was so careless as to whether his work were done or not that at one time he was rusticated for six weeks; also, to his father's annoyance he was chosen class poet.

After leaving college Lowell struggled manfully to become a lawyer, but he could not help being a poet, and ten years after graduating, he brought out in one twelvemonth three significant poems. The first was *The Vision of Sir Launfal*, with its loving



JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL,
1819-1891

outburst of sympathy with nature. He knew well how the clod—

Groping blindly above it for light,
Climbs to a soul in grass and flowers.

Sir Launfal, too, climbs to a soul, for the poem is the story of a life. The second poem was *A Fable for Critics*, whose pithy criticisms of authors have well endured the wear and tear of over half a century. The third was *The Biglow Papers*. Here was an entirely new vein. Here the Yankee dialect—which is so often only a survival of the English of Shakespeare's day—became a literary language. Lowell could have easily put his thoughts into the polished sentences of the scholar; but the homely wording which he chose to employ gives them a certain everyday strength that a smoother phrasing would have weakened. When he writes,

Ez fer war, I call it murder ;
There you hev it plain an' flat ;
I don't want to go no furdur
Than my Testyment fer that,—

he strikes a blow that has something of the keenness of the sword and the weight of the cudgel.

These three poems indicate the three directions in which Lowell did his best work; for he was poet, critic, and reformer—sometimes all three in one. In such poems as *The Present Crisis*, that stern and solemn arraignment of his countrymen, there is as much of earnest protest as of poetry. So in *The Dandelion*, his "dear, common flower" reveals to him not only its own beauty, but the thought that every human heart is sacred.

Lowell's lyrics are only a small part of his work; for he took the place of Longfellow at Harvard, he edited reviews, wrote on literary and political subjects, delivered addresses and poems, the noble *Commencement Ode* ranking highest of all, and was minister, first to Spain, and then to England. In his prose writings one is almost overwhelmed with the wideness of his knowledge, yet there is never a touch of pedantry, and serious thought is ever brightened by flashes of wit. When we take up one of his writings, it will "perchance turn out a song, perchance turn out a sermon," but whatever it is, it will be sincere and honest and interesting. It is easier to label and classify the man who writes in but one manner, and it may be that he wins a surer fame; but we should be sorry indeed to miss either scholar, critic, wit, or reformer from the work of the poet Lowell.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1809-1894. Holmes was born at Cambridge, Massachusetts, and so naturally went to Harvard. The year after he graduated the order was given to break up the old battleship *Constitution*. Then it was that he wrote *Old Ironsides*, pleading for its preservation, with such good effect that the Secretary of the Navy revoked his order. Holmes was twenty-one: he decided to be a physician; but, as he said, "The man who has tasted type is sure to return to his old indulgence sooner or later, and he had hardly taken his degree before the publishers were advertising a volume of his poems. Here were *My Aunt*, *The September Gale*, and best of all, *The Last Leaf*, the verses that one reads with a smile on the lips and tears in the eyes.

The young physician's practice did not occupy

much of his time, but soon an invitation came to teach anatomy at Dartmouth; and, a few years later, to teach the same subject at Harvard. Holmes was successful; for with all his love of literature, he had a genuine devotion to his profession.

In 1857, a new magazine was to be started, and Lowell was asked if he would be its editor. He The Atlantic. 1857. replied, "Yes, if Dr Holmes can be the first contributor to be engaged." Dr Holmes became not only the first contributor, but he named the magazine *The Atlantic*. Some twenty-five years The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table. 1857. earlier he had written two papers called *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*. He now continued them, beginning, "I was just going to say when I was interrupted." The scene is laid at the table of a boarding-house. The Autocrat carries on a brilliant monologue, broken from time to time by a word from the lady who asks for original poetry for her album, from the theological student, the old gentleman, or the young man John; or by an anxious look on the face of the landlady, to whom some paradoxical speech of the Autocrat's suggests insanity and the loss of a boarder. *The Autocrat* will bear many readings and seem brighter and fresher at each one. Embedded in it, and in *The Professor*, which followed, are a number of poems among which may be mentioned *The One-Hoss Shay*, with its irrefutable logic, *Contentment*, with its modest—

I only wish a hut of stone
(A very plain brown stone will do),—

and the exquisite lines of *The Chambered Nautilus*, with its superb appeal—

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!

Holmes was also a novelist ; for he produced *The Elsie Venner* and two other works of fiction, all showing power of characterization, and all finding their chief interest in some study of the mysterious connexion between mind and body. "Medicated novels," a friend mischievously called them, somewhat to the wrath of their author. Elsie Venner. 1861.

Nearly half of Holmes's poems were written for some special occasion—some anniversary, or class reunion, or reception of a famous guest. At such times he was at his best, for the demand for occasional verse was to him a breath of inspiration. Occasional verse.

Holmes's wit is ever fascinating, his pathos is ever sincere ; but the charm that will perhaps be even more powerful to hold his readers is his delightful personality, which is revealed in every sentence. His tender heart first feels the pathos that he reveals to us ; his kindly spirit is behind every flash of wit, every sword-thrust of satire. Holmes's charm.

With these three New England poets should be bracketed a fourth, John Greenleaf Whittier. He lived at the same period as they, and in the same New England ; but he was not a Cambridge man, his parents were not even comfortably off, and he did not have the advantage of a Harvard education.

John Greenleaf Whittier, 1807-1892, was born in a quiet Quaker farmhouse in the town of Haverhill, Massachusetts. He had to stay at home and work on the farm, but he read the family library of about thirty volumes (chiefly lives of prominent Quakers) over and over, and even made a catalogue of them in rhyme. One day his schoolmaster lent him a copy of Burns's poems, and later he bought a copy of

Shakespeare, and was a little conscience-smitten, for he knew that Quakers did not approve of plays.

Whittier soon wrote poems himself, and by and by one was printed in the local paper. This brought him under the notice of the editor, William Lloyd Garrison, who called one day at the farm and told the



JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER,
1807-1892

family that the son had "true poetic genius," and that he ought to have an education. "Don't thee put such notions into the boy's head," said the father, for he saw no way to afford even a single term at school. A way was arranged, however, and he had one year at an academy. This was almost his only schooling, but he was an eager student all the days of his life.

Through Garrison's influence an opportunity to do editorial work was offered him. He became deeply interested in public matters. The very air was tingling with the question: Slavery or no slavery? He threw the whole force of his thought and his pen against slavery. From the peace-loving Quaker came lyrics that were like the clashing of swords.

The years passed swiftly, and Whittier gained reputation as a poet slowly. He published several early volumes of poems, but it was not until 1866 that he really touched the heart of the country, for then he published *Snow-Bound*. There are poems by scores that portray passing moods

Snow-
Bound.
1866.

or tell interesting stories, or describe beautiful scenes; but, save for *The Cottar's Saturday Night*, there is hardly another that gives so vivid a picture of home life. We almost feel the chill in the air before the coming storm; we fancy that we are with the group who sit "the clean-winged hearth about": we listen to the "tales of witchcraft old," the stories of Indian attacks, of life in the logging camps; we see the school-master, the Dartmouth boy who is teasing "the mitten-blinded cat" and telling of college pranks. The mother turns her wheel, and the days pass till the storm is over and the roads are open. The poem is true, simple, and vivid, and it is full of such phrases as "the sun, a snow-blown traveller"; "the great throat of the chimney laughed;" "between the andirons' straddling feet,"—phrases that outline a picture with the sure and certain touch of a master. The poem is "real," but with the reality given by the brush of an artist. *Snow-Bound* is Whittier's masterpiece; but *The Eternal Goodness* and some of his ballads, *The Barefoot Boy*, *In School-Days*, *Among the Hills*, *Telling the Bees*, and a few other poems, come so close to the heart that they can never be forgotten.

Whittier was always fond of children. The story is told that he came from the pine woods one day with his pet, Phebe, and said merrily, "Phebe is seventy, I am seven, and we both act like sixty." He lived to see his eighty-fifth birthday in the midst of love and honours. One who was near him when the end came tells us that among his last whispered words were "Love to the world."

We have seen that poetry in the United States, in so far as we have dealt with it, has all centred about the great cities of the North. There were several

reasons why it did not flourish to such an extent in the South. There were no large towns where men of talent might gain inspiration from one another; there was small home market for literary wares; and public libraries did not exist. Plantation life called for executive ability and led to statesmanship and oratory rather than to the printed page. So there were orators in the South, but there were a few writers too, and we will now turn to the greatest of them.

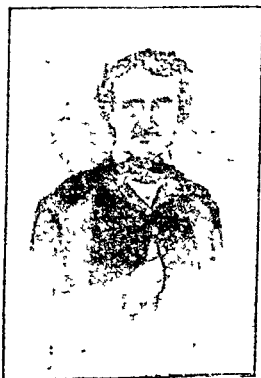
Edgar Allan Poe, 1809-1849. Poe was born in Boston of Southern parents—an actor and actress—both of whom died within a couple of years of his birth. He was taken into the family of a wealthy merchant of Richmond, Virginia, named Allan. He was somewhat wild at college, and was brought home and put to work in Mr Allan's office. He ran away and joined the army but this was an equal failure, and, Mr Allan refusing any further assistance, Poe set to work to support himself by his pen. In the midst of poverty he married a beautiful young cousin whom he loved devotedly. He wrote a few poems and much prose. He held various editorial positions, and usually lost them through either his extreme sensitiveness or his use of stimulants. His child-wife died, and two years later Poe himself died.

These are the facts in the life of Poe; some of his biographers have pictured him as a worthless drunkard; others, probably more truly, as of a sensitive, poetic organization that was thrown into confusion by a single glass of liquor.

Poe was first known by his prose, and especially Poe's critt. cism. by his reviews. He had a keen sense of literary excellence, and was utterly fearless—a new and badly needed quality in American

criticism. On the other hand, he had not the foundation of wide reading and study necessary for criticism that is to abide; and, worse than that, he was not great enough to be fair to the man whom he disliked or of whom he was jealous. His most valuable prose is his tales, for here he is a ^{Poe's} master. They are well constructed and the ^{Tales} plot is well developed; every sentence, every word, counts toward the climax. He has a marvellous ability to make a story "real." He brings this about sometimes in Defoe's fashion, by throwing himself into the place of his characters and thinking what *he* would do in their position; sometimes by emphasizing some significant detail, as, for instance, in *The Cask of Amontillado*. Here he mentions three times the webwork of nitre on the walls that proves their fearful depth below the river bed and the victim's consequent hopelessness of rescue. Sometimes the opening sentence puts us into the mood of the story, so that, before it is fairly begun, an atmosphere has been provided that lends its own colouring to every detail. For instance, the first sentence of *The Fall of the House of Usher* is:

"During the whole of a dull, dark, and soundless day in the autumn of the year, when the clouds hung oppressively low in the heavens, I had been passing alone, on horseback, through a singularly dreary tract of country, and at length found myself, as the shades



EDGAR ALLAN POE,
1809-1849

of evening drew on, within view of the melancholy House of Usher."

Here is the keynote of the story, and we are prepared for sadness and gloom. The expressions, "soundless day" and "singularly dreary," hint at some mystery. The second sentence increases these feelings; and with each additional phrase the gloom and sadness become more dense.

No one knows better than Poe how to work up to a climax of horror, and then to intensify its awfulness by dropping in some contrasting detail. In *The Cask of Amontillado*, for instance, the false friend, in his carnival dress of motley with cap and bells, is chained and then walled up in masonry. A single aperture remains. Through this the avenger thrusts his torch and lets it fall. Poe says, "There came forth in return only a jingling of bells." The awful death that lies before the false friend grows doubly horrible at this suggestion of the merriment of the carnival.

Poe's poems, which do not number fifty in all, are on the fascinating borderland where poetry and music meet. The best known are *The Bells*, a wonderfully beautiful exposition of bells through the sound of words, and *The Raven*, of the "manufacture" of which Poe has left an account which is probably not strictly true. He declares that he chose beauty for the atmosphere, and that beauty excites the sensitive soul to tears; therefore he decided to write of melancholy. The most beautiful thing is a beautiful woman, the most melancholy is death: therefore he writes of a lover lamenting the death of a beautiful woman. So with the refrain. *O* is the most sonorous vowel, and when joined with *r* is capable of "protracted emphasis";

therefore he fixes upon "Nevermore." In *The Raven*, as in whatever else he writes, there is a weird and marvellous music; to him, everything poetical could be interpreted by sound; he said he "could distinctly hear the sound of the darkness as it stole over the horizon." He has a way of repeating a phrase with some slight change, as if he could not bear to leave it. Thus in *Annabel Lee* he writes:

But our love it was stronger by far than the love
Of those who were older than we—
Of many far wiser than we—
And neither the angels in heaven above,
Nor the demons down under the sea,
Can ever dissever my soul from the soul
Of the beautiful Annabel Lee.

This repetition is even more marked in *Ulalume*:

The leaves they were crispéd and sere—
The leaves they were withering and sere.

These phrases cling to the memory of the reader as if they were strains of music. We find ourselves saying them over and over. It is not easy to analyze the fascination of such verse, but it has fascination. In the poems of Poe the "high seriousness" that Matthew Arnold names as one of the marks of the best poetry, is not easy to find; but in the power to express a mood, a feeling, by the mere sound of words, Poe has no rival.

There is one other writer who must be mentioned among the great American poets, and he—Walt Whitman—is considered by not a few critics as the greatest of them all.

Walt Whitman, 1819-1892, was born at West Hills, Long Island. After his schooling young

Walter started as an errand-boy in a lawyer's office, but before long went to a printer's and learned type-setting. All the time he was a great reader, and when he was nineteen he turned schoolmaster, only to return to printing in a short while. Ten years after this he was editing a paper in Boston, and six years later he published his first volume of poems, *Leaves of Grass*. During the war between the North and South (1862) he became the good angel of the army hospitals, writing a letter for one sufferer, cheering another by a hearty greeting, leaving an orange or a package of candy at bed after bed. Northerner or Southerner, it was the same to him as he went around, carrying out the little wishes that mean so much to the sick. A few years later he suffered from a partial paralysis. His last days were spent in a simple home near the Delaware, in Camden, New Jersey.

The place of Walt Whitman as a poet is in dispute. He is capable of writing on the death of Abraham Lincoln such a gem as *O Captain! my Captain!*

O Captain! my Captain! our fearful trip is done,
The ship has weathered every rack, the prize we sought is won,
The port is near, the bells I hear, the people all exulting,
While follow eyes the steady keel, the vessel grim and daring;

But O heart! heart! heart!

But O the bleeding drops of red,

Where on the deck my Captain lies,

Fallen cold and dead.

and also of inflicting upon us such lines as the following and calling them poetry:

The latest dates, discoveries, inventions, societies, authors old and new,
My dinner, dress, associates, looks, compliments, dues.

Whitman believed that a poet might write on all subjects, and that poetic form and rhythm should be avoided. Unfortunately for his theories, when he has most of real poetic passion, he is most inclined to use poetic rhythm. He writes some lists that are no more poetic than the catalogue of an auctioneer; but he is capable of painting a vivid picture with the same despised tools, as in his *Cavalry Crossing a Ford*:

A line in long array where they wind betwixt green islands,
They take a serpentine course, their arms flash in the sun,—hark
to the musical clank.

Behold the silvery river, in it the splashing horses loitering stop
to drink,

Behold the brown-faced men, each group, each person, a picture,
the negligent rest on the saddles,

Some emerge on the opposite bank, others are just entering the
ford—while

Scarlet and blue and snowy white,
The guidon flags flutter gaily in the wind.

This is hardly more than an enumeration of details; but he has chosen and arranged them so well that he brings the moving picture before us better than even paint and canvas could do. Too often he seems to be a writer of prose printed somewhat like poetry; but when he allows a poetic thought to sweep him onward to a glory of poetic expression, he is a poet, and a poet of lofty rank.

CHAPTER XIV

AMERICAN PROSE

As in the case of the poets it is only thought necessary to deal in this book with the more outstanding of the prose-writers of America.

American prose is, on the whole, on a higher level than American poetry, its better exponents are more numerous, their standard is higher, and they more uniformly attain a high standard than do the poets. It began, as might be expected would be the case in a new country colonized by pious, God-fearing men who had fled from religious and political disabilities, with devotional works, histories and calendars, journals, and books on their new home and how to make it homely.

With these early attempts at making a literature we, in this volume, have little to do: we must pass over the colonizing period and the Revolutionary period—when the States, or the Colonies, as they then were, were wresting their liberty from the Mother Country, and were deluged with political and revolutionary pamphlets, poems, and books as a consequence—to the dawn of a more lasting peace in the early years of the nineteenth century when those that had the ability had the time to write, and those that had not the ability had the time to read.

Just as the great events of the sixteenth century aroused and inspired the Elizabethans, so the growth

of the country, the victories, discoveries, and inventions of the first years of the nineteenth century aroused and inspired the Americans. There was rapid progress in all directions, and no slender part in this progress fell to the share of literature.

The Knickerbocker School. When the nineteenth century began, a boy of seventeen was just leaving school whose talents were to do much to make New York, his birthplace and home, a literary centre. Moreover, the name of one of his characters, Diedrich Knickerbocker, has become a literary term; for just as three English authors have been classed together as the Lake Poets because they chanced to live in the Lake Country, so the term Knickerbocker School has been applied to Irving, Cooper, the poet Bryant, and the lesser writers who were at that time more or less connected with New York.

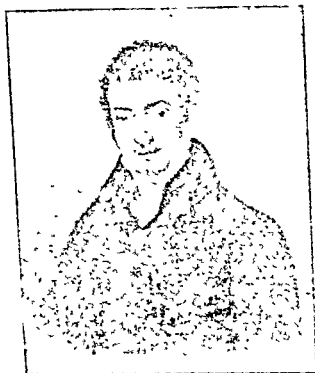
Washington Irving, 1783-1859. This boy of seventeen was Washington Irving. After leaving school he studied law; but in 1804 he was sent to Europe for his health, far more of a journey than a trip around the world nowadays. He wandered through France, Italy and England, and enjoyed himself everywhere. When he returned to New York, nearly two years later, he was admitted to the bar; but he spent all his leisure hours on literature. Addison's *Spectator* had a great attraction for him; and he now set to work with his brother William and a friend, to publish a *Spectator* of their own. They named it *Salmagundi*, and in the first number they calmly announced:

Salma-
gundi.
1807.

Our purpose is simply to instruct the young, reform the old, correct the town, and castigate the age; this is an arduous task, and therefore we undertake it with confidence.

The twenty numbers of this paper that appeared were bright, merry, and good-natured. Their wit had no sting, and they became popular in New York. The

Knickerbocker's law practice must have suffered some neglect, for in 1809 Irving's next work *Knickerbocker's History of New York* was on the market. It was the most fascinating mingling of fun and sober history that can be conceived of, and was



WASHINGTON IRVING,
1783-1859

mischievously dedicated to the New York Historical Society. Everybody read it, and everybody laughed. Even the somewhat aggrieved descendants of the Dutch colonists managed to smile politely.

Knickerbocker's History brought its author three thousand dollars (£600). His talent was recognized on both sides of the Atlantic, but for ten years he wrote nothing more.

In 1815 he visited England and did not return to the United States for seventeen years. He had but slender means and when he was thirty-five years old he roused himself to work, and soon he began to send manuscripts to a New York publisher, to be brought out in numbers under the

The
Sketch
Book,
1819-1820.

signature "Geoffrey Crayon." This work, the *Sketch Book*, was a glowing success. Everybody liked it, and with good reason, for among the essays and sketches, all of rare merit, were *Rip Van Winkle* and *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*.

Praises were showered upon the author until he felt, as he wrote to a friend, "almost appalled by such success." Walter Scott, "that golden-hearted man," as Irving called him, brought about the publication of the book in England and its success there was as marked as in America, for at last a book had come from the New World that no one could refuse to accept as literature. The Americans gloried in their countryman's glory, and the sale was so great that the publisher honourably presented the author with more than a thousand dollars (£200) beyond the amount that had been agreed upon.

An enthusiastic welcome awaited Irving whenever he chose to cross the Atlantic, but he still lingered in Europe. In the next few years he published *Bracebridge Hall* and *Tales of a Traveller*. The latter was not very warmly received, for the public were clamouring for something new. Just as Scott had turned to fiction when people were tired of his poetry, so Irving turned to history and biography. He spent three years in Spain, and the result of those years was his *Life of Columbus*, *The Conquest of Granada*, *The Companions of Columbus*, and, most charming of all, *The Alhambra*.

Brace-
bridge
Hall.
1822.
Tales of a
Traveller.
1824.
Life of Co-
lumbus.
1827. The
Conquest
of Grana-
da. 1829.
The Com-
panions
of Colum-
bus. 1831.
The Al-
hambra.
1832.

Irving had now not only fame but an assured income. He returned to America, and there found himself famous. Once more he left her shores, to become minister to Spain for four years; but, save for that absence, he spent the last twenty-seven years of his life in his charming cottage, Sunnyside, on the Hudson, near Tarrytown. He was not idle by any

means. Among his later works are his *Life of Goldsmith* and *Life of Washington*. In these biographies he had two aims ; to write truly and to write interestingly. His style is always clear, polished, and marked by exquisite gleams of humour. To this charm of style he adds in the case of his *Life of Goldsmith* such an atmosphere of friendliness, of comradeship, of perfect sympathy, that it almost seems as though the two men were companions. No man's last years were ever more full of honours than Irving's ; every one was welcomed to his home, and every one carried away kindly thoughts of the magician of the Hudson.

James Fenimore Cooper, 1789-1851. James Feni-



JAMES FENIMORE COOPER,
1789-1851

more Cooper was born at Burlington, New Jersey, but was early taken to what is now Cooperstown, New York, where his father owned several thousand acres. There the father established a village, and there, in the very heart of the wilderness, the boy spent his early years. He grew used to the free life of the forest ; and it is small wonder that after he entered Yale, he found it rather

difficult to obey orders and was sent home in disgrace.

He next spent four years at sea ; then he married, left the navy, and became a country gentleman, with no more thought of writing novels than other country gentlemen. One day, after reading a story of English

life, he exclaimed, "I believe I could write a better book myself." "Try it, then," retorted his wife playfully; and he tried it. The result was *Precaution*. Unless the English novel was very poor, this book can hardly have been much of an improvement, for Cooper laid his scene in England in the midst of society that he knew nothing about. The book was anonymous. It was reprinted in England and was thought by some critics to be the work of an English writer. Americans of that day were so used to looking across the ocean for their literature that this mistake gave Cooper courage. Moreover, his friends stood by him generously. "Write another," they said, "and lay the scene in America." Cooper took up his pen again. *The Spy* was the result. Irving's *Sketch Book* had come out only a year or two earlier, and now American critics were indeed jubilant. A novel whose scene was laid in America and during the American Revolution had been written by an American and was a success in England. The bolder spirits began to whisper that American literature had really begun. Two years later, Cooper published *The Pioneers*, whose scene is laid in the forest, and also *The Pilot*, a sea tale.

Precaution.
1820.

The Spy.
1821.

The Pioneers,
The Pilot.
1823.

His fame increased, and his eager audience begged for more. His books were translated into French, German, Norwegian, even into Arabic and Persian. Among them was his *History of the United States Navy*, which is still an authority. Some of his books were very good, others were exceedingly poor. The *Leatherstocking Tales* are his best work. The best character is Natty Bumppo, or Leatherstocking, the

History of the United States Navy.
1839.

hunter and scout, whose achievements are traced through the five volumes of the series.

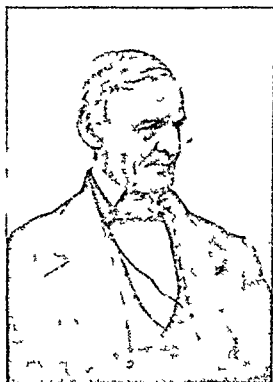
Cooper spent several years in Europe. When he returned, he became involved in almost endless litigation over land and libels, and made himself very unpopular. He often won his suits, but in other directions he lost far more than he gained; for, while Irving was loved by the whole country, Cooper made new enemies every day. Before his death he pledged his family to give no sight of his papers and no details of his home life to any biographer. This is unfortunate, for Cooper always turned his rough side to the world, and the people who knew him best loved him most.

Cooper's success was so immediate that he hardly realized the need of any special preparation for a book; he wrote carelessly, often with most shiftless inattention to style or plot. Mark Twain is scarcely more than just when he declares that the rules governing literary art require that "when a personage talks like an illustrated, gilt-edged, tree-calf, hand-tooled, seven-dollar Friendship's Offering in the beginning of a paragraph, he shall not talk like a negro minstrel in the end of it. But this rule is flung down and danced upon in the *Deerslayer* tale." On the other hand, something must be pardoned to the wish for an effect rather than accuracy of detail; and it is at best a most ungrateful task to pour out harsh criticism upon the man who has given us so many hours of downright pleasure, who has added to English literature two or three original characters, and who has brought to us the salt breeze of the ocean and the rustling of the leaves of the forest.

The next writer that we shall speak about was

of a different class from Washington Irving and Fenimore Cooper.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803-1882, belonged to a group of literary and philosophical workers known as the Transcendentalists. The members of this group had the stimulus arising from a movement, or manner of thought, known as transcendentalism which came from Germany to England and to America, introduced by the works of Carlyle and Coleridge. Three of its "notes" were: (1) There are ideas in the human mind that were "born there" and were not acquired by experience; (2) Thought is the only reality; (3) Every one must do his own thinking.



RALPH WALDO EMERSON,
1803-1882

The first thrill of all new movements leads to extremes, and transcendentalism was no exception. Freedom! Reform! was the war-cry, and to those who were inclined to act first and think afterwards, the new impulse was merely an incitement to tear down the fences. Nevertheless, the ripened fruits of transcendentalism were in their degree like those of the Renaissance; the movement widened the horizon and inspired men with courage to think for themselves and to live their own lives. This atmosphere of freedom had a noble effect upon literature, and its effect is seen most strongly in the writings of the poet-philosopher Emerson.

He was one of five sons of a poor clergyman who lived with their widowed mother in Boston. He was

Influence
of tran-
scenden-
talism.

sent to Harvard and when he was eighteen he joined his elder brother who had opened a school for young ladies. He was even then jotting down the thoughts that he was to use many years later in his essay, *Compensation*, but he soon left the school to become a minister. However, a few years later he had to tell his congregation that his belief differed on one or two points from theirs, and though they begged him not to, he resigned.

A year later he visited Europe for his health. He wanted to see men rather than places, so, after meeting Coleridge and Wordsworth, he sought out the lonely little farm of Craigenputtock, the home of Carlyle. His coming was "like the visit of an angel," said the Scotch philosopher to Longfellow. The two men became friends, and the friendship lasted as long as their lives.

Emerson settled at Concord, Massachusetts in 1834, and began his career as a lecturer. In 1837 he delivered at Harvard his Phi Beta Kappa address, *The American Scholar*; and then for the first time the American people were told seriously and with dignity that they must no longer listen to "the courtly muses of Europe." "We will walk on our own feet; we will work with our own hands; we will speak our own minds," said Emerson. These words are the keynote of his message to the world. Whoever listens may hear the voice of God, he declared; and for that reason each person's individuality was sacred to him. He met every man with a gently expectant deference that was far above the ordinary courtesy of society, and on the lecture platform his manner was that of one who was trying to interpret what he knew, of one who was striving to

put his thoughts into a language which had no words to express them fully.

Some parts of Emerson's writings are simple enough for a little child to understand; other parts perhaps no one but their author has fully ^{Literary} comprehended. It is not easy to make an ^{style.} outline of his essays. Every sentence, instead of opening the gate for the next, as in Macaulay's prose, seems to stand alone. Emerson said with truth, "I build my house of boulders." The connexion is not in the words, but in a subtle undercurrent of thought. The best way to enjoy his writings is to turn the pages of some one of his simpler essays, *Compensation*, for instance, and read whatever strikes the eye. When one has read; "What will you ^{How to} have?' quoth God; 'pay for it and take ^{enjoy} it,"—"The borrower runs in his own debt,"—"The thief steals from himself,"—"A great man is always willing to be little";—when one has read a few such sentences, he cannot help wishing to begin at the beginning to see how they come in. Then let him take from each essay that he reads the part that belongs to him, and leave the rest until its day and moment have fully come.

Besides his prose Emerson wrote a good many poems, and some of them, especially *Each and All*, *The Humble-Bee*, *Woodnotes*, *Fable* ("The ^{Emerson's} mountain and the squirrel"), *Concord Hymn*, ^{poems.} and *Boston Hymn* are well worth knowing by heart. He who has learned this handful of poems can hardly fail to have gained for their author a friendliness that will serve as his best interpreter.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804-1864. Hawthorne is often classed with the Transcendentalists, partly

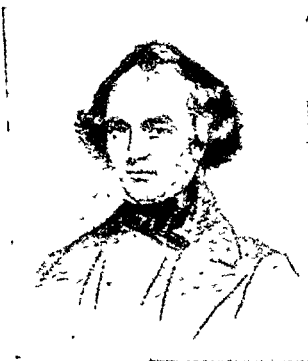
because of a few months' connexion with one of their socialistic schemes, known as the Brook Farm project, and even more because in his romances the thought and the spirit are so much more real than the deeds by which they are symbolized.

He had led a singular life. When he was four years old, his father, a sea-captain, died in South

Haw-

thorne's
early life.

America. His mother almost retired from the world; he was sent to school; but soon an accident at football confined him to the house for two years. There was little to do but



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE,
1804-1864

read; and he read from morning till night. Froissart, *Pilgrim's Progress*, and Spenser carried him away to the realms of the imagination, and made the long days a delight. At last he was well again; and then came one glorious year by Sebago Lake, where he wandered at his will in the grand old forests of Maine. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825, and for the

next twelve years was isolated from almost every one, including his old class-mate, Longfellow. He had returned to his home in Salem, where he wrote and read by day and by night. He pub-

Twice-

Told Tales,
1837.

lished a novel which he was afterwards glad did not sell. He wrote many short stories, and in 1837 he published them in a volume. This was the *Twice-Told Tales*. Soon after his

marriage came the second series of *Tales*, and a few years later, *Mosses from an Old Manse*. All the time he was a Custom House official, till a change in political power came, and he had to tell his wife that he had been thrown out of his position. "I am glad," she said, "for now you can write your book." This book was *The Scarlet Letter*, that marvellous picture of the stern old Puritan days, softened and illumined by the touch of a genius. One need not fear to say that it is still the greatest American book, and even its publisher called to tell its author what a magnificent piece of work it was. "It is the greatest book of the age," he declared and it was such a success that, two weeks after its publication the whole edition had been sold.

Tales,
second
series,
1842.
Mosses
from an
Old Manse.
1846.
The
Scarlet
Letter.
1850.

Hawthorne had now come to the appreciation that inspired him to do his best work. Within three years he wrote *The House of the Seven Gables*, a book of weird, pathetic humour and flashes of everyday sunshine. Then came *The Wonder-Book*, the little volume that is so dear to the hearts of children. *The Blithedale Romance* followed, then a life of his friend, Franklin Pierce, and *Tanglewood Tales* next,—a glorious record for less than three years.

The House
of the
Seven
Gables.
1851.
The Won-
der Book.
1851.
Blithedale
Romance.
1852.
Life of
Pierce.
1852.
Tangle-
wood
Tales.
1853.

Franklin Pierce had become President, and he appointed Hawthorne consul at Liverpool. Four years of the consulship (1853-7) and three years of travel resulted in the *Note-Books* and *The Marble Faun*, the fourth of his great romances. Four years after its publication, Hawthorne died.

The
Marble
Faun.
1860.

It is as difficult to compare Hawthorne's romances with other novels as to compare a strain of music with a painting, for their aims are entirely different. Novelists strive to make their characters lifelike, to surround them with difficulties, and to keep the reader

Difference between Hawthorne and other novelists. in suspense as to the outcome of the struggle. Hawthorne's characters are clearly outlined, but they seem to belong to a different world. Nor are the endings of his books of supreme interest. The fact that four people in *The House of the Seven Gables* finally come to their own is not the most impressive fact of the story.

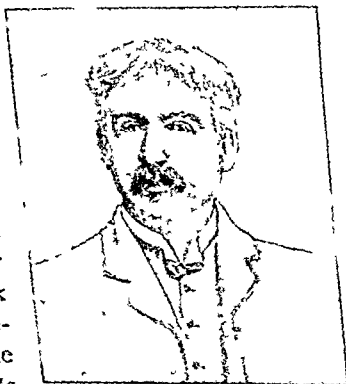
Hawthorne's power lies primarily in his knowledge of the human heart and in his ability to trace step by step the effect upon it of a single action. His charm comes from a humour so delicate that sometimes we hardly realize its presence; from a style so artistic that it is almost without flaw; from a manner of treating the supernatural that is purely his own. He gives the suggestive hint that sets our own fancy to work, then with a half smile he quietly offers us a matter-of-fact explanation—which, of course, we refuse to accept. But the magic that removes Hawthorne's stories farthest from everyday life is the atmosphere in which they seem to exist. The characters are real, but they are seen through the thought of the romancer. In *The House of the Seven Gables*, Hawthorne ponders on how "the wrong-doing of one generation lives into the successive ones"; and everything is seen through the medium of that thought. No other American author has shown such profound knowledge of the human heart or has put that knowledge into words with so accurate and delicate a touch. No one else has mingled so gracefully the prosaic and the ideal.

Francis Bret Harte, 1839-1902. Four years after the death of Hawthorne there came a new voice in America's literature, this time from the far Pacific coast. *The Overland Monthly* had been founded, and Bret Harte had become its editor. He had gone from Albany to California, and had tried teaching and mining, had written a few poems, and some parodies of various works that he had been taught to admire, but now, in 1868, he published *The Luck of Roaring Camp*. This was followed

The Luck of Roaring Camp.
1868.

by other stories and poems, and in a twinkling he was famous. Bret Harte is

no longer hailed as the American laureate; but within his own limits he is master. When he takes his pen, the life of the mining camp stands before us in bold outline. He is a very missionary of light to those who think there is no goodness beyond their own little circle. In *How Santa Claus Came to Simpson's Bar*, for instance, the dirty



FRANCIS BRET HARTE
1839-1902.

little boy with "fevier. And childblains. And roo-matiz," gets out of bed to show to the rough men who are his visitors a hospitality which is genuine if somewhat soiled; and the roughest of them all gallops away on a dare-devil ride over ragged mountains and through swollen rivers to find a city and a toyshop, because he has overheard the sick child asking his father what "Chrissmiss" is, and the question has

touched some childhood memories of his own. Harte's one text in both prose and poetry is that in every child there is some bit of simple faith, and that in the wildest, roughest, most desperate of men there is some good. Several of his poems are exceedingly beautiful lyrics; several are vivid pictures of the mining camp—coarse, but hardly vulgar, and with a never-failing touch of human sympathy and warm confidence in human nature.

These then are the greatest names in America's literature, and though in this short account we are unable to do more than refer to others it must not be supposed that this is because there are no others worthy of reference.

One book by Harriet Beecher Stowe, 1811-1896, deserves mention—not on account of its literary qualities, for it is carelessly written and the plot is loosely constructed—but because of the effect it had in drawing the attention of everybody, both in the United States, in England, and very largely on the Continent of Europe, to the great question that was dividing the North from the South in the United States, the question as to whether or not slave-holding was in accord with Christian principles and the best feelings of humanity. This book was *Uncle Tom's Cabin*; it was published in 1852, nine years before the great War of Secession broke out. Its success was astounding, and it was then thought to have wielded so great an influence on the destiny of the nation that it is said that when President Lincoln met Mrs Stowe he said, "Is this the little woman who made this great war?"

Another writer of one outstanding book was

Emerson's friend, **Henry David Thoreau**, 1817-1862. Thoreau was a true nature-lover, so much so that, to be alone with Nature, he buried himself in the woods on the margin of a little lake—Walden Pond—not far from Concord, Massachusetts. For two years he lived here in his hut, watching to see when the first bluebird appeared, and how the little twigs changed in colour at the coming of the spring, and learning the ways of the wild things that had their homes in the trees and the rocks and the rivers; and all the time, besides watching he was making notes in his diary, so that a few years later he was able to give to the world the charming account of it—*Walden, or Life in the Woods* (1854), by which he afterwards became famous. Thoreau was one of the Transcendentalists of whom we have spoken on page 299; but his Utopianism took a rather different trend than did that of most of the other members of the group, and can be best summed up in his own phrase, that "a man is rich in the proportion of things he can do without."

In the middle and later half of the nineteenth century there was a little group of historical writers in the United States, at least four of whom did lasting, and literary, work. These were **George Bancroft**, 1800-1891, **William Hickling Prescott**, 1796-1859, **John Lothrop Motley**, 1814-1877, and **Francis Parkman**, 1823-1893. They were all Harvard men, and two of them, Bancroft and Motley, were United States' Ambassadors to Great Britain.

Bancroft's chief work is the monumental *History of the United States*. This appeared in ten volumes at various intervals between 1834 and 1874, and will

for many years to come be the chief and invaluable authority on that subject.

The work by which Motley will be remembered is *The Rise of the Dutch Republic*, published in three volumes in 1856. Motley was in London at this time—he spent most of his life away from his native land—and as he could get no publisher to undertake the risk of his book he published it at his own expense. Its success with scholars and the general public alike was immediate and immense, and few books have been written in a clearer and more fascinating style nor on a more interesting and exciting subject.

Prescott's life work was concerned with Spain, and with the little known histories of Mexico and Peru. An accident in youth had left him nearly blind, but he employed readers and secretaries and the amount of work—great in quality as in quantity—he got through was amazing. His *History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella* came out in 1838, his *Conquest of Mexico* in 1843, and the *Conquest of Peru* four years later; while at his death in 1859 he was still engaged on his *History of the Reign of Philip II*, the first volume of which had appeared in 1855. Prescott was most painstaking in collecting facts and comparing statements, but the popularity of his books is largely due to their subject—which is romantic and adventurous—and their style—which is strong, absolutely clear, and often poetic.

Francis Parkman set himself to write the story of the struggle between France and England for the possession of half a continent—Canada; and he planned his work so thoroughly that he actually spent several months living with the Indians so that he could in some measure think their thoughts and see

things as they saw them. In his *The Oregon Trail* (1847) will be found an account of this period of his life. He suffered a great deal from bad health, but he lived to carry out his plan, which is comprised in twelve volumes covering the ground from *Pioneers of France in the New World* to *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*. He published his last book *A Half Century of Conflict* in 1892, the year before his death.

A few words on its humorous writings will bring this account of America's literature to a fitting close; for American humour is something quite individual, something to which the epithet "unique" might almost be applied, and something, at any rate, that is entirely "home-grown," and so—in a way—more distinctively American than anything else in American literature, with the sole exception, perhaps, of the poems of Walt Whitman and his school.

There is no lack of humour in the writings of Americans. The works of Irving, Holmes, Lowell, the charming essays of many writers, and the stories of Frank Stockton and others, are lighted up by humour on every page, sometimes keen and swift, sometimes graceful and poetic. These are humourists that make us smile. There are lesser humourists who make us laugh. Such was **Charles Farrar Browne**, 1834-1867, "**Artemus Ward**," who wrote over his show, "You cannot expect to go in without paying your money, but you can pay your money without going in." He depended in part upon absurdities of spelling to attract attention, a questionable resort save where, as in the *Biglow Papers*, it helps to bring a character before us. American humour is accused, and sometimes with justice, of depending upon exaggeration and irrever-

ence. It has, nevertheless, a solid basis of shrewdness and good sense; and, however crooked its spelling may be, it always goes straight to the point. Another characteristic quality is that in the "good stories" that are copied from one end of the land to the other, the hero does not get the better of the "other man" because the other man is a fool, but because he himself is bright.

The most famous humourist of the United States is **Samuel Langhorne Clemens, 1835-1910**, or **Samuel "Mark Twain."** He was born in Missouri, and became printer, pilot, miner, reporter, editor, lecturer, and author. His *Innocents Abroad*, the record of his first European trip, set the whole country laughing. The "Innocents" wander through Europe. They distress guides and cicerones by refusing to make the ecstatic responses to which these tyrants are accustomed. When they are led to the bust of Columbus, they profess never to have heard of him, and inquire with mock eagerness, "Is this the first time this gentleman was ever on a bust?" The one place where they deign to show "tumultuous emotion" is at the tomb of Adam, whom they call tearfully a "blood relation," "a distant one, but still a relation." The book is a witty satire on sham enthusiasm; but it is more than a satire, for Mark Twain was not only a wit but a literary man. He could describe a scene like a poet if he chose; he could paint a picture and make a character live. Among his many books are two that show close historical study, *The Personal Memoirs of Joan of Arc*, and his ever delightful *The Prince and the Pauper*. The latter is a tale for children, wherein the prince exchanges clothes with

he pauper, is put out of the palace grounds, and has many troubles before he comes to his own again. Mark Twain abominated shams of all sorts and looked upon them as proper targets for his artillery. His reputation as a humorist does not depend upon vagaries in spelling, or amusing deportment on the lecture platform. He was a clear-sighted, original, honest man, and his fun had a solid foundation of good sense.

Literary progress. Counting from the very beginning, the literature of America is not yet three hundred years old. The colonists landed on the shores of a new country. They had famine and sickness to endure, the savages and the wilderness to subdue. It is little wonder that for many decades the pen was rarely taken in hand save for what was regarded as necessary. Even to the present day there has been little drama produced in America, but in fiction, poetry, humorous writings, essays, biography, history, and juvenile books, an immense amount of composition, much of it good, has been sent forth. Many influences are at work; who shall say what their resultant will be? One thing, however, is certain—he who reads second-rate books is helping to lower the literary standard of his country, while he who lays down a poor book to read a good one is not only doing a thing that is for his own advantage, but is increasing the demand for good literature that almost invariably results in its production.

INDEX

- Å Becket, Thomas, 62.
Isaloni and Achitophel, 166.
Adam Bede, 247, 248.
 Addison, Joseph, portrait, 177; love for Swift, 184; Johnson compared with, 193, 195, 251.
 Addison and Steele, account of, 176-181.
Address to the Devil, 211.
Adonais, 229.
 Ælfric, homilies of, 39, 40.
Æneid, Surrey's, 91; Dryden's, 167.
 Æsop's *Fables*, 80.
 Alcuin, account of, 32; 34.
Alexander's Feast, 167.
 Alexander the Great, in romance, 45.
 Alfred the Great, account of, 33-38.
 Alliteration, in Old English poetry, 23; disappearing, 39; in *Piers Plowman*, the last alliterative poem, 55, 56; Chaucer's use of, 66.
Alton Locke, 269.
 America, literature affected by discoveries in, 85; by Revolution in, 204; literature of, 273-311.
Ancient Mariner, *The Rime of the*, 215.
Ancren Riwle, *The*, 45, 47.
 Angles, 17, 18.
Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, begun, 36, 39; ends, 46.
 Anglo-Saxon metre, 22, 23; used by Langland, 56, 57; abandoned by Chaucer, 66.
 Anglo-Saxon poetry, remains of, 22.
Apelles' Song, 106.
Aradia, 103-105; printed, 109.
Arcopagitica, 138.
 Arnold, Thomas, 258.
 Arnold, Matthew, 249; account of, 258-259.
 Arthur, in cycle of romance, 45; 46; 70; 265; Milton's proposed epic of, 158.
Ask Me no More, 150.
Astrophel and Stella, 111.
Aurora Leigh, 262.
 Austen, Jane, 220; account of, 238-240.
 "Authorized version." See *Bible*.
 Bacon, Francis, account of, 122-125; 170; 179.
 Ballads, early, 39-40; of Robin Hood, 49-50; of the fifteenth century, 71-72; marks of, 72, 73; Celtic influence on, 73; in sixteenth century, 97; in Percy's *Reliques*, 206; of Coleridge and Wordsworth, 215; of the Scottish Border, 221-222.
 Bancroft, George, 307.
Banks o' Doon, 210.
Bannockburn, 210.
 Barrett, Elizabeth, 260, 261. See Elizabeth Barrett Browning.
Battle of the Books, 182.
 Baxter, Richard, account of, 148-149.
 Beaumont, Francis, 121. See Beaumont and Fletcher.
 Beaumont and Fletcher, their skill in plots, 126; account of, 130-131.
 Bede, account of, 29-32; 36.
 Bentley, Richard, criticizes Pope's *Iliad*, 175.
Beowulf, story of, 19-22; facsimile of MS., 21; changed by Christianity, 21-22; lines from, 22; compared with *The Dream of the Rood*, 28; 40; treatment of woman in, 48; 56.
Bible, paraphrased by Cædmon, 26; translated by Wyclif, 57-60; translated by Tyndale, 89; "King James version," 125-126; basis of *Paradise Lost*, 158; Bunyan's knowledge of, 163; Ruskin uses vocabulary of, 257.
Bird, The, 145.
Blackwood's Magazine, 230, 235, 238, 247.
 Blank verse, 92; gaining ground in the drama, 106; its power shown by Marlowe, 107.
Blessed Damsel, The, 268.
 Boccaccio, 62.

- Boldness in thought, 89; in literature, 97.
Book of Snobs, 244.
 Boswell, James, account of, 195-197.
 Breton's *Bower of Delights*, 105.
Bride of Abydos, The, 226.
 Brontë, Charlotte, 269; portrait, 270.
 Browne, Charles Farrer. See "Artemus Ward."
 Browning, Elizabeth Barrett, 260, 261, 262.
 Browning, Robert, account of, 259-263; portrait, 260; 271.
Brut, 47.
 Bryant, William Cullen, 274-276.
 Bunyan, John, account of, 161-164; portrait, 161.
 Burke, Edmund, 196; 199; account of, 201-202.
 Burns, Robert, 145; account of, 208-213; 272.
 Butler, Samuel, account of, 157-158.
 Byron, Lord, 219, 220, 222; account of, 224-227; 229; 231; 236; 239; 240.
 Cædmon, account of, 24-26; in Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, 31.
 Calvinists, 182.
Canterbury Tales, account of, 62-67; printed by Caxton, 80.
 Carew, Thomas, account of, 149-150.
 Carlyle, Mrs., 248.
 Carlyle, Thomas, 247; 249; account of, 252-254; 255.
Cato, 180-181.
 "Cavalier Poets," 149; 152.
 Caxton, William, 70; presented to Edward IV., illustration, 79; introduces printing, 80; 81.
 Celts, driven west and north by the Teutons, 17-18; learn Christianity, 22; literature influenced by, 39-40, 73; 97.
 Chapman, George, 126.
 Charlemagne, 33, 34; romance of, 45.
 Charles I., 133, 137, 138, 147, 149.
 Charles II., returns to England, 140; 156; feeling towards dissenters, 161; welcomed by Dryden, 164.
 Chaucer, Geoffrey, 50; account of, 60-67; portrait, 61; imitators of, 68-69; 70; 72; 84; 102; 153.
 Chesterfield, Lord, 194-195.
 Chettle, Henry, writes of Shakespeare, 115.
Cherry Chase, 72.
Child Harold, 224, 225, 226.
Christabel, 217.
Christmas Eve and Easter Day, 262.
 "Christopher North," 235. See Wilson, John.
Chronicle, Anglo-Saxon, 35, 46.
 Chronicles, become interesting, 44.
 Church of England, separates from Church of Rome, 90; in controversy with the Puritans, 112; rebuked by Milton, 138; defended by Dryden, 166.
Church Porch, The, 143.
Clarissa Harlowe, 191.
 Clemens, Samuel Langhorne. See "Mark Twain."
Cloud, The, 228.
 Coleridge, Samuel Taylor, 214, 215, 217, 218; portrait, 218; 225; 231; 232.
 Columbus, 82, 85.
Comedy of Errors, The, 115.
 Commonwealth, religious writings during the, 141.
Compleat Angler, The, 155-156.
Comus, 137.
 "Conceits," of Herbert, 143; of Vaughan, 144; of Donne, 135.
Confessions of an English Opium-Eater, 236.
 Constantinople, captured by the Turks, 84.
 Cooper, James Fenimore, 296-299.
Corinna's Going a-Maying, 153.
Corsair, The, 226.
Cotter's Saturday Night, The, 212-213.
Countess of Pembroke's Arcadia. See *Arcadia*, 103.
 Cowper, William, account of, 206-208.
Cranford, 269.
 Crashaw, Richard, 141; account of, 143-144.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 138; Milton writes in his honour, 140; eulogized by Dryden, 164.
 Cross, Mary Ann Evans. See "George Eliot," 246.
Crossing the Bar, 267.
 Crusades, 43, 45, 52, 54.
Cry of the Children, The, 260.
Curse of Kehama, The, 217.
 Cycles, of mystery plays, 74-75.
Cymbeline, 118.
 Cynewulf, account of, 26-28.
 Da Gama, Vasco, 82.
 Danes, in Beowulf, 19; invade Northumbria, 33, 36, 38.

- Dante, 60.
 Darwin, Charles, 269.
David Copperfield, 242.
Decay of Beggars in the Metropolis, 234.
Delights of the Muses, 143.
Deor, The Complaint of, 24.
 De Quincey, Thomas, 220, 232, 240;
 account of, 234-238; portrait, 235.
Deserted Village, The, 200, 206.
Deucalion, 257.
 Devotional books, in thirteenth century, 44.
Defence of the English People, 139, 158.
 Defoe, Daniel, 181; account of, 185-188; portrait, 187; 239.
 Dekker, Thomas, 126.
 Dickens, Charles, account of, 241-244; portrait, 241; Thackeray compared with, 243-244, 245, 246.
Dictionary, Johnson's, 194, 195, 201.
Disdain Returned, 150.
 Disraeli, Benjamin, 269.
Dissertation upon Roast Pig, A, 234.
Don Juan, 226.
 Donne, John, account of, 134-135; Walton's *Life of*, 155; 229.
 Drama, early Elizabethan, 98; later Elizabethan, 105; need of a standard verse, 106; the classic, 127; decadence of the Elizabethan, 131-133; of Greeks imitated by Milton, 160; of the Restoration, 164-165; 271.
Dream Children, 234.
Dream of Fair Women, A, 264.
Dream of the Rood, The, 28, 40.
 Dryden, John, account of, 164-168, 170; 189.
Dunciad, The, 175-176.
 Dunstan, 38.
 Early English Period, 17-40.
 Early English poetry, 17-29; form of, 22; as a whole, 28.
Earthly Paradise, The, 268.
Ecclesiastical History, 31-36.
Ecclesiastical Polity, 112.
Edinburgh Review, 225, 238.
Edward II, Marlowe's, 107, 108.
Edward V, More's *Life of*, 88.
 Edward VI, 94.
Elegy in a Country Churchyard, 203.
 Eliot, George, 246-248.
Elixir, 142.
 Elizabeth, Queen, 95, 98, 103, 106, 109; at Kenilworth, 110; England during reign of, 95; 112; death of, 118; 122; 134.
 Elizabethan Age, literary debt to Skelton, 87; England during, 96; literary boldness, 97; early drama of, 98; inspiration lingers, 118; vanishes, 165; romances of, 189.
 Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 299-301.
Emma, 239.
Endymion, 230.
 England, named from the Angles, 18; Bede's history of, 31; Goldsmith's, 200; Hume's, 203; Macaulay's, 252; at the death of Alfred, 36; conquered by William, 40, 42.
England's Helicon, 105.
English Bards and Scotch Reviewers, 225.
English Humourists, 245.
 English language, Old English compared with modern English, 22; used by Bede, 32; of the ninth century, 35; as used by Alfred, 35; 36; as used by Chaucer, 67; struggle between French and English, 42; after the Conquest, 43; fears of its disappearance, 125.
Enoch Arden, 267.
 Epic, growth of, 19; Milton's proposed British, 158; ancient epics, 85.
Essay of Dramatic Poesy, 167.
Essay on Criticism, 172.
Essay on Man, 176.
Essay on Milton, 251.
Essay on Projects, 186.
Essays, Bacon's, 123-124.
Essays of Elia, 234.
 Ethelwulf, 36.
Euphues, 99, 103.
 Euphuism, 100; used by Shakespeare, 115.
Eve of St Agnes, 230.
Eve of St John, 221.
 Evelyn, John, 168-169.
Every Man in His Humour, 126.
Everyman, 77, 78.
Exeter Book, 24.
Faerie Queene, read to Raleigh, 109; symbolism of, 110; beauties of, 111; 115.
 "Father of English Poetry," 60, 66.
Faustus, the Tragical History of Dr, 107.
 Fergusson, Robert, 208.
Ferrex and Porrex, 95. See *Gorboduc*.
 Fielding, Henry, 191, 238, 245.
First Folio, 131.

- Fletcher, John. See Beaumont and Fletcher.
Flight of a Tartar Tribe, The, 237.
 Ford, John, 126.
 Form, attention to, needed by English literature, 99; introduced by Wyatt and Surrey, 90, 91; shown by Lyly, Spenser, and Sidney, 99; influence of French care for, 165; Pope's care for, 176.
Forsaken Merman, The, 258.
Four Ps, The, 94.
Four Georges, The, 245.
 France, borrows Alcuin, 33; sends teachers to England 34; invaded by Normans, 41; 42; 43; Reign of Terror in, 202; Revolution in, affects literature, 204, 214-215.
Fraser's Magazine, 244, 253.
Frederick II, Carlyle's *History of the Life and Times of*, 255.
 Freeman, Edward Augustus, 269.
 "Free verse," 91. See blank verse.
 French, learned by the English, 42; *History of the Kings of Britain* translated into, 45; *Mandeville's Travels* written in, 54; used by Chaucer, 60, 67; models followed by the English, 84, 164-165, 172.
French Revolution, Burke's *Reflections on the*, 202.
French Revolution, Carlyle's *History of the*, 254.
 Froude, James Anthony, 269.
 Fuller, Thomas, 146-147, 221.
 Gaskell, Elizabeth Cleghorn, 269.
Genesis, 158.
 Geoffrey of Monmouth, 45.
 George I, 181.
 George IV, 223.
 Germany, early home of the Teutons, 17; printing in, 79; effect of the Renaissance upon, 85, 89; refuge of Tyndale, 89; 202; 217.
 Gibbon, Edward, 202; account of, 203.
 Globe Theatre, 121.
 Goldsmith, Oliver, account of, 198-201; portrait, 198; Cowper compared with, 206.
Good-Natured Man, The, 200.
Goody Two Shoes, 198.
Gorboduc, 95; compared with *Ralph Roister Doister*, 96; 98.
Gospel of St John, Bede's translation of, 32, 35.
Gospels, in the "authorized version," 125.
 Gray's *Elegy*, 205.
 Gray, Thomas, account of, 204-205.
Great Hoggarty Diamond, The, 244.
 Greek, dances loved by Herrick, 152; drama and *Samson Agonistes*, 160; language studied by Shakespeare, 112; literature known to Surrey and Wyatt, 91; mythology, 230; restraint of Arnold, 258-259.
 Greeks, flee to Italy, 84; ancient writings of, 84; modern, helped by Byron, 227.
 Green, John Richard, 268.
 Greville, Fulke, 109.
Guardian, The, 180.
Gulliver's Travels, 183-184.
 Hallam, Arthur Henry, 265.
Hamlet, 118.
Handsome Nell, 208.
 Harte, Francis Bret, 305, 306.
 Hastings, Warren, 202, 251.
 Hathaway, Anne, 113.
 Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 301-304.
 Henry VIII, 86-92, 94.
Henry Esmond, 245.
 Herbert, George, account of, 141-143; portrait of, 142; model of Vaughan, 146; Walton's *Life of*, 155, 156.
Heroes and Hero-Worship, 255.
 Herrick, Robert, 149; account of, 152-154.
Hesperides, The, 153.
Hester, 233.
 Heywood, John, 93, 94.
Hind and the Panther, The, 167.
History of America, Robertson's, 202.
History of England, Hume's, 203.
History of England, Macaulay's, 252.
History of the World, 122.
 Holmes, Oliver Wendell, 281-283.
Holy State and Profane State, The, 146.
 Holy Grail, 46.
Holy Living and Holy Dying, 147.
 Homer, Pope compared with, 174.
 Homilies, 38.
 Hooker, Richard, account of, 111-112.
Hours of Idleness, 225.
Hudibras, 157-158.
 Hume, David, 203.
 Hunt, Leigh, 232.

- Huxley, Thomas, 269.
Hymn on the Morning of Christ's Nativity, 136.
Hymn to the Pillory, 186.
 Hymns, Addison's, 181; Cowper's, 207.
Idylls of the King, 266.
Iliad, translated by Pope, 174.
Il Penseroso, 136.
In Memoriam, 265.
Instauratio Magna, 124-125.
 Interludes, 92, 93.
 Ireland, 31; famous schools in, 39; Spenser in, 102, 103; Addison in, 177.
 Irving Washington, 293-296.
 Italy, resort of the English clergy, 53; visited by Chaucer, 60; literature of, compared with that of England, 60, 61; 84; sought by Greek scholars, 84; effect of the Renaissance upon, 85; literature of, known to Surrey and Wyatt, 91; home of blank verse, 96; tales and romances of, brought to England, 97; 231; 260.
Ivanhoe, 245, 248.
 James I, of England, 109, 118; imprisonments Raleigh, 122; praised in masques, 129; his court, 132; 133; 141.
 James I, of Scotland, 68, 69.
Jane Eyre, 269.
 Jeffrey, Francis, 225, 238.
Jew of Malta, The, 107.
John Gilpin, 207.
 John of Trevisa, 42.
 Johnson, Samuel, account of, 193-195; portrait, 193; 198; 199; 201; 251.
 Jonson, Ben, 122; account of, 126-130; portrait, 127; criticises Donne, 134; influence of, 135.
Joseph Andrews, 245.
Journal of the Plague Year, 188.
Journey to the Western Isles of Scotland, 197.
 Keats, John, 219, 220, 227; account of, 229-231; portrait, 230; 236; 240.
King Horn, 47-48.
 "King James Version." See *Bible*.
King Lear, 118.
 "King Monmouth," 185.
Kings of Britain, History of the, 45.
King's Quair, The, 69.
Kubla Khan, 218.
Lady Clare Vere de Vere, 264.
Lady to Her Inconstant Servant, The, 150.
 "Lake Poets," 214, 220.
L'Allegro, 136.
 Lamb, Charles, 126, 220; account of, 231-234; portrait, 232; 236.
 Lamb, Mary, 231, 233.
Lamia, 230.
 Langland, William, account of, 55-57; 60.
Last Days of Pompeii, 269.
 Latin, language of scholars and the church, 31; priests' ignorance of, 34; compared with English, 35; used by Geoffrey of Monmouth, 45; abandoned by Wyclif, 58; literature known to Surrey and Wyatt, 91; Shakespeare's knowledge of, 112; expected permanence of, 125.
 Launcelot, 46, 265; and a hermit, illustration, 46.
 Laureate, Jonson, 130; Southey, 217; Wordsworth, 220; Tennyson, 265, 266; Tennyson's laureate poems, 266.
Lay of the Last Minstrel, The, 222, 225.
 Layamon, 46.
Lays of Ancient Rome, 252.
Letters from a Citizen of the World, 199.
Litany, Herrick's, 154.
 Literary Club, 198-201.
 Lives of saints, 38.
Lives of the Poets, 193, 197.
Lives, Walton's, 155.
Locksley Hall, 264.
London Magazine, 236.
 Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth, 276-279.
Lost Leader, The, 263.
Lotos-Eaters, The, 264.
 Lovelace, Richard, 149, 151; account of, 152.
Love's Labour's Lost, 115.
 Lowell, James Russell, 279-281.
Lucretia, 115.
 Ludlow Castle, 137.
Lycidas, 136, 137.
 Lyell, Sir Charles, 269.
 Lyly, John, account of, 99-100, 106.
Lyrical Ballads, 215-216.

- Lyrics, after the Conquest, 48; of the dramatists, 107; of Burns, 211; progress of lyric poetry, 271, 272. See Hymns.
- Lytton, Edward Bulwer, 269.
- Macaulay, Thomas Babington, account, 249-252; portrait, 250; 269.
- Malory, Sir Thomas, 69, 70, 80, 265.
- Mandeville, Sir John, account of, 53-55; on his voyage, illustration, 54.
- Marlowe, Christopher, account of, 106; 107; 108; 112.
- Marmion*, 222, 226.
- Mary Queen of Scots, 95, 108, 110.
- Mary. See William and Mary.
- Masque of Oberon*, 129.
- Masques, account of, 92-93; of Jonson, 129.
- May Queen, The*, 264.
- Men and Women*, 262.
- Merchant of Venice, The*, 116.
- Metre, Old English, 22, 23; of ballads, 71, 73; of early Elizabethan drama, 98; need of a standard, 106; blank verse triumphs, 107; 5-beat line, 189; influence of Pope's, 189.
- Middlemarch*, 247.
- Midland dialect, employed by Chaucer, 67.
- Midsummer Night's Dream, A*, 115.
- Mill on the Floss, The*, 247.
- Milton, John, account of (before 1660), 135-140, 141, 142; after 1660, 140; portrait, 135; Herbert compared with, 142; later years of, 158-161; sonnet on his blindness, 160; Bunyan compared with, 161, 164; Dryden compared with, 168.
- Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border, The*, 222.
- Miracle plays, 77, 82. See Mysteries.
- Miscellanies, the Elizabethan, 105. See *Tottel's Miscellany*.
- Mr Minns and his Cousin*, 242.
- Modern Painters*, 256.
- Modest Proposal, A*, 183.
- Monthly Magazine*, 242.
- Moral Essays*, Pope's, 176.
- Moralities, account of, 77-78; 92; 98; 128.
- More, Sir Thomas, account of, 88-90; portrait, 88; 92.
- Morris, William, 268.
- Morte d'Arthur, 70; printed by Caxton, 80; 81; as treated by Tennyson, 265.
- Motley, John Lotrop, 307.
- Munera Pulveris*, 256.
- Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts*, 237.
- Mystery plays, account of, 74-77; 92; illustration, 74; 77; 92; 98. See Miracle plays.
- Nature, loved by the Norman-English, 48; by Milton, 136; by Surrey, 137; by Vaughan, 145; by Taylor, 148; in the eighteenth century, 204; interpreted by Wordsworth, 219-200.
- Nelson, Southey's Life of*, 217.
- Newcomes, The*, 245.
- Newman, John Henry, 269.
- New Testament*, Tyndale's translation of, 89, 90.
- New World, 97, 109.
- Night Piece*, 153.
- Noble Numbers*, 153, 154.
- Norman Conquest, a gain to England, 41; effect on language, 42, 43; effect on literature 43, 74, 84, 269.
- Norman-English Period, 41-50.
- Normans, character of, 41, 43, 45.
- Norton, Thomas, 95.
- Novel, requirements of the, 190; first true novel, 190.
- Novum Organum*, 125.
- Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington*, 266.
- Ode on the Intimations of Immortality*, 220.
- Ode to a Grecian Urn*, 230.
- Ode to the West Wind*, 228.
- Odyssey*, translated by Pope, 174.
- Old Familiar Faces, The*, 233.
- Old Testament*, translated by Tyndale, 89.
- Oliver Twist*, 242.
- On the Late Massacre in Piemont*, 140.
- On the Study of Poetry*, 259.
- On the Sublime and Beautiful*, 201.
- Origin of Species*, 269.
- Ormulum*, 44, 47.
- Orosius, 34.
- Pamela*, 191-192, 245.
- Paracelsus*, 261.
- Paradise Lost*, 158-160, 170, 251, 271.
- Paradise of Dainty Devices, The*, 105.

- Paradise Regained*, 160.
 Parkman, Francis, 307.
Pastime with Good Company, 86.
 Pastorals, 100, 101, 103, 105, 129.
 Pater, Walter, 269.
 Patronage, literary, ended by Johnson, 194-195.
 Pembroke, Countess of, 103.
 Pepys, Samuel, 160-170.
 Percy, Bishop Thomas, 206; 221.
Percy's Reliques, 205, 221.
 Periodicals, the beginning of, 189.
Peter Bell, 220.
 Petrarch, 60.
Phoenix's Nest, The, 105.
Phyllip Sparrow, 87.
 Picaresque stories of Defoe, 188.
Pickwick Papers, The, 242.
Pied Piper of Hamelin, The, 263.
Piers Plowman, Vision of, 55-57.
Pilgrim's Progress, The, 161, 162-164, 189, 251.
Pippa Passes, 261.
Plague Year, Defoe's Journal of the, 188.
 Poe, Edgar Allan, 286-289.
Poems, Chiefly Lyrical, 264.
 Pope, Alexander, account of, 172-176; portrait, 172; love for Swift, 184; influence upon literature, 189; Goldsmith compared with, 200; Pope's ideas of nature, 205, 208.
 Powell, Mary, 138.
Præterita, 257.
 Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, 268.
 Prescott, William Hickling, 307.
Pride and Prejudice, 239.
Princess, The, 265.
Principles of Geology, 269.
 Printing introduced into England, 78-81; early printing press, illustration, 82; spreads knowledge of the classics, 85; office of 1619, illustration, 139.
Prisoner of Chillon, The, 226.
Prologue, Chaucer's, 64, 65.
Prometheus Unbound, 228.
 Prose, Old English, 29-36; in Lyly's dramas, 106; becomes literature in Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity*, 112; Century of, 171-213; of early periodicals, 189; progress of, 270.
Prospect, 263, 271.
Psalms, in the "authorized version," 125.
Pulley, The, 143.
Punch, 244.
 Puritans, in controversy with the Church of England, 112; power of, increases, 132-133; against the king, 138; confidence of, in Milton, 139; lose power, 140; oppose amusements, 156; caricatured in *Hudibras*, 157; and Royalists, Century of the, 118-170.
Put Yourself in His Place, 270.
Quarterly Review, criticizes Keats, 230; established, 238.
Rabbi Ben Ezra, 263.
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, as a colonizer, 109, visits Spencer, 109; account of, 122.
Ralph Roister Doister, 94; compared with *Gorboduc*, 96.
Rambler, The, 195.
 Ramsay, Allan, 208.
Rape of the Lock, The, 173-174, 175.
Rasselas, 195.
 Reade, Charles, 270.
Rebecca and Rowena, 245.
Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye, 80.
Reflections on the French Revolution, 202.
Religio Laici, 166, 167.
Reliques of Ancient English Poetry, 206, 221.
 Renaissance, 84, 85, 86, 90, 91.
 Restoration, The, 156-157; drama of, 164-165.
Revelation, in the "authorized version," 125, 158.
 Revolution, French, 214.
 Reynolds, Sir Joshua, 196, 199.
 Rhyme, contrasted with alliteration, 22; used by the dramatists, 106.
Rhyme of the Duchess May, 260.
 "Rhyme royal," 69.
Richard III, More's Life of, 88.
 Richardson, Samuel, account of, 190-191; portrait 190; Goldsmith reads proof for, 198, 238.
 Riddles, of Cynewulf, 27.
Rime of the Ancient Mariner, 215-216.
Ring and the Book, The, 262.
 Robertson, William, account of, 202, 203.
 Robin Hood ballads, 49-50, 221.
Robinson Crusoe, 185; account of, 187-188; 190.
Roderick Random, 192.
Roman Empire, Gibbon's *History of the Decline and Fall of the*, 203.

- Romances, 45-47.
 Romans, 31; writings of, 84; in plays of Shakespeare and Ben Jonson, 128.
 Romantic revival, 203-204.
Romeo and Juliet, 117.
Romola, 247.
 Rossetti, Dante Gabriel, 268.
Rugby Chapel, 259.
 Runes, 26.
 Ruskin, John, 249; account of, 255-258; Browning compared with, 257; Arnold compared with, 258.
 Sackville, Thomas, 95.
Sad Shepherd, The, 129.
Saint Cecilia's Day, 167.
Saints' Everlasting Rest, The, 148.
Samson Agonistes, 160.
Sartor Resartus, 253, 254.
 Satire, of Dryden, 166; of Pope, 175-176; of Swift, 181-182, 183; of De-foe, 185.
Scenes from Clerical Life, 247.
 Scotland, 68; home of the ballads, 72; oats in, 194; visited by Johnson, 197; Robertson's *History of*, 202; love of nature in poets of, 204, 208.
 Scott, Sir Walter, 219; portrait, 221; account of, 220-224; 225; 239; 240; 248; "George Eliot" compared with, 248.
 Selkirk, Alexander, 187.
 Seneca, read in England, 95.
Sentimental Journey, The, 192-193.
Sesame and Lilies, 257.
 Shakespeare, William, 95; Marlowe compared with, 108; account of, 112-121; portrait, 116; in the seventeenth century, 118-121, 126; aids Ben Jonson, 127; contrasted with Ben Jonson, 126, 127; contrasted with Beaumont and Fletcher, 130; plays collected and printed, 131; "wit-combats" of, 131; Dryden compared with, 166; Pope compared with, 173; works edited by Johnson, 193; Thackeray compared with, 245.
 Shelley, Percy Bysshe, 219, 220; account of, 227-229; 231; 236; 240.
Shepherd's Calendar, The, 100, 101.
She Swoops to Conquer, 200-201.
Short History of the English People, Green's, 269.
Shortest Way with the Dissenters, The, 185.
 Sidney, Sir Philip, 99, 111; account of, 103-105; portrait, 104; mourning for, 109, 114; sonnets, 111.
Silva Marner, 247, 248.
Silex Scintillans, 144.
Sir Charles Grandison, 191.
Sir Patrick Spens, 221.
Sir Roger de Coverley, in the *Spectator*, 180.
 Skelton, John, account of, 86-87; 92.
Sketches by Bos, 242.
 Smollett, Tobias George, account of, 192; 238.
 Songs of the dramatists, 106-107; of Burns, 211, 212. See Lyrics.
 Sonnet, introduced by Wyatt and Surrey, 91; decade of, 111; Sidney's, 111; Shakespeare's, 119-120; Milton's, 140.
Sonnets from the Portuguese, 262.
 Southey, Robert, 214; account of, 217; 220; 231; 240.
Specimens of Dramatic Poets Contemporary with Shakespeare, 233.
Spectator, The, 180, 189.
Speech on Conciliation with America, 202.
 Spenser, Edmund, account of, 100-103; in Ireland, 108; 109; plan of the *Faerie Queene*, 109-110; sonnets, 111; 114; 230.
 Steele, Sir Richard, Defoe compared with, 185; Johnson compared with, 193. See Addison and Steele.
 "Stella," 184-185.
Steps to the Temple, 143.
 Sterne, Laurence, account of, 192-193.
Stones of Venice, 256.
 Stowe, Harriet Beecher, 306.
 Suckling, Sir John, 149; account of, 150-151.
Superannuated Man, The, 234.
 Surrey, Earl of, account of 90-91; 99; treatment of nature compared with Milton's, 137. See Wyatt.
 Swift, Jonathan, 177; account of, 181-185; portrait, 182; Defoe compared with, 185.
 Swinburne, Algernon Charles, 268.
 Tabard Inn, 62.
Tale of a Tub, The, 182-183.
Tales from Shakespeare, 233.
Tamburlaine, 107-108.
Tam O'Shanter, 210, 212.
Task, The, 207.
Tattler, The, 178-179, 180, 189.

- Taylor, Jeremy, account of, 147-148.
Tempest, The, 118.
 Temple, Sir William, 182, 184.
Temple, The, 112.
 Tennyson, Alfred, 259; account of, 263-268; portrait, 264; 272.
 Thackeray, William Makepeace, 241; account of, 243-246; portrait, 245.
Thalaba, 217.
Thanksgiving, A, 152.
 Theatre, first, 98; Globe, 121.
 Thoreau, Henry David, 307.
Tintern Abbey, 216.
To Althea, 151.
To a Skylark, 228.
 Tom Jones, 191.
Tottel's Miscellany, 92, 150.
 Translations, Bede's *Gospel of St John*, 32; Alfred's, 35, 36; Wace's *History of the Kings of Britain*, 45-46; French Romances into English, 46-48; Mandeville's *Travels*, 53; Wyclif's, *Bible* 89; Surrey's *Æneid*, 91; inspired by the Renaissance, 97; Dryden's *Æneid*, 167, 189; Pope's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, 174; "George Eliot's," 246; Carlyle's, 253.
Traveller, The, 199.
Tristram Shandy, 192.
 "Twain, Mark," 310.
 Tyndale, William, 89-90.
 Tyndall, John, 269.
 Udall, Nicholas, 94.
 Unities, classic, 127, 130.
Unto This Last, 256.
Utopia, 88-89.
Vanity Fair, 245.
 Vaughan, Henry, 141, 143; account of, 144-146.
Venus and Adonis, 115.
Vercelli Book, 24.
Wear of Wakefield, The, 199, 200, 242.
 Victorian Age, the, 241, 244, 263.
Vision of Piers Plowman, 55-57; 60.
 Wace, 45-46.
 Wærferth, 35.
 Walton, Izaak, account of, 154-155.
 "Ward, Artemus," 309.
 Warwickshire, 246.
Waverley, 223, 239.
We Are Seven, 216.
 Webster, John, 126.
 Welsh, Jane. See Mrs Carlyle, 253.
Westminster Review, 247.
 Whitman, Walt, 289-291.
 Whittier, John Greenleaf, 283-286.
Widsith, 23, 271.
 William and Mary, 185.
 William the Conqueror, 40.
 Wilson, John, 235.
Winter's Tale, The, 118.
Wishes to His (Supposed) Mistress, 143.
Witches and Other Night Fears, 234.
 Wolsey, Cardinal, 86.
 Worcester, 35.
 Wordsworth, Dorothy, 215.
 Wordsworth, William, account of, 214-216; portrait, 214; 218-219, 225; 232; 235; 272.
World, Raleigh's History of the, 122.
World, The, 144.
Worthies of England, The, 147.
 Wyatt, Sir Thomas, account of, 90-92; and Surrey introduce Italian regard for form, 90, 99.
 Wyclif, John, account of, 57-60; portrait, 58.